entitle them to; hoping that Divine Providence, and the applauding voice of the neutral powers, will aſſiſt in maintaining the Republic in the juſt defence of its deareſt rights."

Great reparations were made for immediate hoſtilities againſt the Dutch and ſeveral hundred of the Imperialiſts, with ſome field-pieces, advancing towards the counterſcarpe of Lillo, the commanding officer of that place ordered the ſluices to be opened, November 7, 1784, which effected an inundation that laid under water many miles of flat country around the forts on the Scheldt, to preſerve them from an attack. Both parties exerted themſelves, in caſe they ſhould be called forth to open a campaign in the next ſpring; but France and Pruſſia interpoſed as negociators and mediators; and ſucceeded in bringing about a reconciliation. However, from the conduct of the emperor in the partition of Poland, and in demoliſhing the fortifications of the barrier places in the Netherlands, and demanding a free navigation of the Scheldt, and to the Eaſt Indies; advancing from one pretenſion to another, it is apparent, that the moſt ſolemn treaties will be no longer obſerved by ſome courts and ſtateſmen, than till they have an opportunity with ability to break them.

During the progreſs of their contentions with the emperor, this country was greatly diſtreſſed by the moſt unhappy animoſities within themſelves, which it may be proper in this place briefly to ſtate. The continued ſeries of loſſes which they had ſuſtained in the late war with Great Britain was peculiarly diſgraceful to the republic. All their ſettlements in the Weſt Indies fell into the hands of the Britiſh, without reſiſtance; their ſhips were captured and trade ruined; while the diſaſters of the war excited the animoſity of the two factions againſt each other to the higheſt degree. The patriots, or ariſtocratic party, attributed theſe defeats to the ſtadtholder, who had openly expreſſed his predilection for the Engliſh, at the beginning of the American quarrel. To this conduct the patriots now very artfully reverted. They accuſed him of having adviſed the aggreſſion of the Engliſh, and of contributing to their ſucceſs by treachery. The evident inequality of the ſtruggle, the notorious deficiency of all warlike articles in the dock-yards and arſenals of the republic, the frequent and public reclamations made by the prince and by the council of ſtate on the ſubject of that deficiency, were forgotten; and the wilful miſconduct of the ſtadtholder was boldly alledged by the patriots as the ſole cauſe of that miſerable ſucceſſion of defeat and diſgrace which immediately followed the commencement of hoſtilities. Whilſt theſe were the recriminations of the patriots, the monarchical, or Orange party, accuſed their antagoniſts of having involved the country in a dangerous war, at a time when it was entirely unprepared for it.

This produced various accuſations and vindications between the two parties, until at laſt, in the month of May, 1786, the ſtadtholder gave orders to ſeize on Vreeſwick, a poſt of importance to the city of Utrecht, on account of its ſituation on the canal between that city and the territories of South Holland; containing alſo the ſluices by which both theſe provinces might be overflowed. This brought on a ſkirmiſh between the troops of the ſtadtholder and the burghers of Utrecht, in which the latter proved victorious. Some other unimportant hoſtilities took place; but while the military operations were carried on in ſuch a languid manner, a violent tumult took place at Amſterdam, which, as uſual, was excited by the partiſans of the ſtadtholder, in which ſeveral perſons were killed. This was followed by a revolt of moſt of the regular troops of Holland, who went over to the ſtadtholder; but notwithſtanding this apparent advantage, and ſome others which afterwards took place, the diſputes ſtill continued with

extreme violence, insomuch that the princess of Orange herself was seized, and detained prisoner a night by the patriots.

These most turbulent commotions were, however, at last happily settled by the king of Prussia, who, for this purpose, marched an army into the territories of the United States, and took possession of the city of Rotterdam, and some other places, without resistance. This over-awed both parties to such a decree, that they quickly came to an accommodation, and a treaty was concluded between that monarch and the States of Holland. By this, the two contending parties were formally reconciled, and the courts of London and Berlin guarantied the stadthol'ership, as well as the hereditary government of each province, in the house of Orange, with all the rights and prerogatives settled in the years 1747 and 1748; by which all attempts to disturb the domestic tranquillity of the republic, by means of any foreign interference, appear to be effectually guarded by the close union that subsists between those two important powers.

Here we shall conclude the history of the Seven United Provinces, whose inhabitants so gloriously distinguished themselves in the cause of liberty; and whose brave, vigorous, and successful struggles in this noble contest, against the tyranny and ferocious bigotry of Philip II, will be always remembered with pleasure, whilst men have a just sense of the natural rights and liberties of mankind, which will be, it is hoped, so long as human nature exists.

After the independency of the Seven United Provinces was acknowledged, the Spaniards remained possessed of the other ten provinces, or, as they are termed, the Low Countries, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramilies, in the year 1706. After which Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI, afterwards emperor of Germany, for their sovereign; and his daughter, the late empress-queen, remained possessed of them until the war of 1741, when the French reduced them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; and would have still possessed them, but for the exertions of the Dutch, and chiefly of the English, in favour of the house of Austria. The places retained by the French, by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in the year 1748, may be seen in the preceding general table of divisions.

It was not long after the settlement of the disturbances in Holland, that the provinces of the Netherlands belonging to the emperor, determined to assert their liberty. The quarrel originated, like those in other countries, about the prerogatives assumed by the emperor, and which were more extensive than his subjects wished to allow; and the emperor making use of force to assert his claims, the territories of the United States became a refuge for the discontented Brabanters.

On the part of his Imperial majesty, the insurgents were not treated with lenity. A proclamation was issued by count Trautmansdorff, governor of Brussels, intimating, that no quarter should be given them, and that the villages in which they concealed themselves, should be set on fire. A general Dalton marched with 7000 men to retake the forts, proclaiming that he meant to become master of them by assault, and would put every soul he found in them to the sword.

In opposition to this sanguinary proclamation, the patriots issued a manifesto, in which they declared the emperor to have forfeited his authority, by reason of his various oppressions and cruelties, his annulling his oath, and infringing the constitution. Banishment was threatened to such as took part with him; and all were exhorted to take up arms in defence of their country,

country, though ſtrict orders were given that no crowds or mobs ſhould be allowed to pillage; and whoever was found doing ſo, ſhould be treated as an enemy to his country.

This was dated at Hoogſtraten, in Brabant, October the 24th, 1789. Almoſt every town in Auſtrian Flanders ſhowed its determination to oppoſe the emperor, and the moſt enthuſiaſtic attachment to military affairs diſplayed itſelf in all ranks of men. Even the eccleſiaſtics manifeſted their valour on this occaſion; which perhaps was naturally to be expected, as the emperor had been very active in depriving them of their revenues. A formidable army was ſoon raiſed, which after ſome ſucceſsful ſkirmiſhes, made themſelves maſters of Ghent, Bruges, Tournay, Malines, and Oſtend; ſo that general Dalton was obliged to retire to Bruſſels. A battle was fought before the city of Ghent, in which the patriots were victorious, though with the loſs of 1000 men, beſides women and children. It reflects indelible diſgrace on the Imperial character, as well as on the commanders of the troops, that they committed the moſt dreadful acts of cruelty on the unhappy objects who fell into their hands. Orders were given to plunder and deſtroy wherever they could obtain any booty; while the mercileſs ſavages not only deſtroyed the men, but killed women and ſucking infants. Some of them plunged their bayonets into the bodies of children in the cradle, or pinned them againſt the walls of the houſes. By theſe monſtrous cruelties, they enſured ſucceſs to their adverſaries; for the whole countries of Brabant, Flanders, and Maes, almoſt inſtantly declared in their favour. They publiſhed a memorial for their juſtification, in which they gave, as reaſons for their conduct, the many oppreſſive edicts with which they had been harraſſed ſince the death of the empreſs-queen; the unwarrantable extenſion of the Imperial prerogatives, contrary to his coronation-oath, and which could not be done without perjury on his part; the violence committed on his ſubjects, by forcibly entering their houſes at midnight, and ſending them priſoners to Vienna, to periſh in a dungeon, or on the banks of the Danube. Not content with this, he had openly maſſacred his ſubjects; he had conſigned towns and villages to the flames, and entered into a deſign of exterminating people who contended only for their rights. Theſe things, they owned, might be terrible at the time, and eaſily impoſe upon weak minds, but "the natural courage of a nation roufed by repeated injuries, and animated by deſpair, would riſe ſuperior to thoſe laſt efforts of vindictive tyranny, and render them as impotent and abortive, as they were wicked and unexampled." For all which reaſons they declared themſelves INDEPENDENT, *and for ever releaſed from the houſe of* AUSTRIA.

The emperor now perceiving the bad effects of his cruelty, publiſhed proclamations of indemnity, &c. but they were treated with the utmoſt contempt. The patriots made the moſt rapid conqueſts, inſomuch, that before the end of the year they were maſters of every place in the Netherlands, except Antwerp and Luxemburg.

Notwithſtanding they thus appeared for ever ſeparated from the houſe of Auſtria, yet the death of Joſeph, happening ſoon after, produced ſuch a change in the conduct of government, as gave a very unexpected turn to the ſituation of affairs; and the mild and pacific diſpoſition of Leopold, who ſucceeded his brother, the conciliating meaſures he adopted, together with the mediation of Great Britain, Pruſſia, and Holland, made a material alteration in the affairs of theſe provinces; and a convention, which was ſigned at Reichenbach, on the 27th of July, 1790, by the above mentioned high contracting powers, had for its object the re-eſtabliſhment of peace and good order in the Belgic provinces of his Imperial majeſty.

Their majeſties of Great Britain and Pruſſia, and the ſtates general of Holland, became, in the moſt ſolemn manner, guarantees to the emperor and his ſucceſſors for the ſovereignty of the Belgic Provinces, now reunited under his dominion.

The ratification of this convention was exchanged between the contracting parties within two months from the date of ſigning, which was executed at the Hague, on the 10th of December, 1790.

The incurſion of the French into theſe provinces has already been narrated, in our hiſtory of the late tranſactions of that people, which will ſuperſede the neceſſity of any repetition of it in this place.

GERMANY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600	between	5 and 19 Eaſt long.	181,631.
Breadth 520		45 and 55 North lat.	

GERMANY and BOHEMIA contain 191,573 ſquare miles, with 135 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] THE empire of Germany, properly ſo called, is bounded by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, including Bohemia, on the Eaſt; by Switzerland and the Alps, which divide it from Italy, on the South; and by the dominions of France and the Low Countries, on the Weſt, from which it is ſeparated by the Rhine, Moſelle, and the Maeſe.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] The diviſions of Germany, as laid down, even by modern writers, are various and uncertain. I ſhall therefore adhere to thoſe that are moſt generally received. Germany formerly was divided into the Upper, or Southern, and the Lower, or Northern. The emperor Maximilian, predeceſſor and grandfather to the emperor Charles V, divided it into ten great circles; and the diviſion was confirmed in the diet of Nuremberg, in 1552; but the circle of Burgundy, or the ſeventeen provinces of the Low Countries, being now detached from the empire, we are to confine ourſelves to nine of thoſe diviſions, as they now ſubſiſt.

Whereof three are in the north, three in the middle, and three in the ſouth.

The northern circles — —	Upper Saxony Lower Saxony Weſtphalia
The circles in the middle —	Upper Rhine Lower Rhine Franconia
The ſouthern circles — —	Auſtria Bavaria Swabia

Diviſions.

Plate XIII.

0 2 16 18 20

54 52 50 48 46

E A Lauenburg

h Dantzic

ern Y

mmin N S I A

—0—

ettin S

rgard P R U

Thorn

Yarmouth

P Posnan

ancfort P O

Crossen

London Z E G

Iben Glogaw

Sagan Oels

Dover S I L E S I A N

Calais N E A Bsin Lignitz Breslaw

ritz Oppeln

Glatz

hingsgratz Ratibor Cracow

Dieppe

Jagerndorf Teschen

M I A Kaurzim

Olmutz

F R V I A

Tabor Iglaw R Brinn

Hradish

Znaim

Paris

VIENNA Presburg

Krems R

R Danube

Buda

Neustat

GERMA

idenburg

FROM THE BI R R. Mur Gratz

AUTHORI

Draburg R Drave

Cilley

R. Save

British Miles 69 ½ to a

50 100

German Leagues 15 to a.

10 20

Ft Viets

2 ongitude East 16 from London 18

GERMANY
FROM THE BEST
AUTHORITIES.

British Miles 69 ½ to a Degree.
50 100 150

German Leagues 15 to a Degree.
10 20 30

2 4 6 8 10 12 14 Longitude East 16 from London 18

54 52 50 48 16

GERMAN OCEAN
BALTIC SEA
DENMARK
Kiel
Meldorp
Gluckstat
Lubec
Wismar
Rostock
Wolgast
Rugen
Colberg
Lauenburg
Dantzic
Tammin
Stettin
Gustrow
Schwerin
Hamburg
Staden
Lunenburg
Bremen
Verden
Embden
Delmenhorst
Diepholt
Hoye
Dannebergo
Ulzen
Berleberg
Gortz
R. Oder
Stargard
Landsperg
Thorn
Warsaw
Posnan
Stendal
Zell
Brunswic
HANOVER
Osnaburg
Tecklenburg
Bentheim
Rarensburg
Munster
Minden
Ritberg
Paderborn
Cleves
R. Rhine
R. Weser
Halberstadt
Magdeburg
Wolfenbuttel
Zerbst
Wittenberg
Francfort
Crossen
Guben
Glogaw
Posnania
POLAND
Anhalt
Bernberg
Dessau
Mansfeldt
Hall
Cottbus
Sagan
Oels
Leipsick
Meissen
Gorlitz
Lignitz
Breslaw
SILESIA
Budissin
DRESDEN
Altenburg
Weimar
Gotha
Eisnach
Waldeck
Homberg
Hatzfeld
Marpurg
Cassel
Gottingen
Grubenhagen
Hamelen
Arensburg
Dusseldorf
Cologn
Bonn
Juliers
Aix
Liege
Mastricht
Brussels
Calais
Ostend
Gelders
Coblentz
Spa
Namur
NETHERLANDS
WESTPHALIA
Dieppe
Paris
Bouillon
Treves
or Triers
Deux Ponts
Spire
Worms
Frankfort
Mentz
Hochem
Nassau
Idstein
Rheinfels
Darmstadt
Hanau
Werthem
Erpach
Fulda
Coburg
Culembach
Schweinfurt
Bamberg
Egra
Saatfeldt
Plawen
Hennebergo
Giessen
Leutmeritz
Glatz
Konings gratz
Ratibor
Cracow
Oppeln
Satz
PRAGUE
Jagerndorf
Teschen
Olmutz
Kaurzim
Pilsen
BOHEMIA
Tabor
Iglaw
Brinn
Hradish
Znaim
Piseck
Budweis
Straubing
Ratisbon
Fichstat
Amberg
Chamb
Leuchtenberg
Nurenburg
Wurtzburg
Manheim
Hailbron
Hall
Oeting
Anspach
Mergentheim
Heidelberg
Philipsburg
Spire
Deux Ponts
Metz
Verdun
Toul
Strasburg
Baden
Stutgard
Donawert
Neuburg
Ingolstadt
Tubingen
Ulm
Burgau
Freissingen
Landshut
Passaw
Lintz
R. Danube
VIENNA
Krems
Presburg
Buda
Neustat
HUNGARY
Rotweil
Friburg
Augsburg
Buchaw
Mindelheim
Memmingen
Brisach
Schafhausen
Waldshut
Kempten
MUNICH
Burkhausen
Gemund
Basil
Rhinefield
Constance
Lindau
Werdenfels
Saltzburg
Judenburg
Gratz
R. Muer
Berchtolsgaden
Monstfort
Inspruck
R. Inn
Bern
SWITZERLAND
Brixen
Tirol
Clagenfurt
Lavemund
Drabourg
R. Drave
Cilley
R. Save
Goritz
Laybach
Trent
Aquilea
Trieste
St. Viets
GULF OF Venice
VENICE
ISTRIA
VENICE
ITALY

1. Upper SAXONY Circle.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Pomerania, in the North	Pruſ. Pomerania, NE.	Stettin, E. l. 14-50. N. lat. 53-30.	4820
	Swed. Pomer. NW.	Stralſund	2991
Brandenburg in the middle, ſub. to its own elector the K. of Pruſſia	Altmark, weſt	Stendel	10,910
	Middlemark	Berlin, Potſdam	
	Newmark, eaſt	Frankf. Cuſtrin.	
Saxony Proper, in the ſouth, ſub. to its own elector	Duchy of Saxony. N.	Wirtenberg	7500
	Luſatia, marq eaſt	Bautzen, Gorlitz	
	Miſnia, marq. ſouth	Dreſ. E. lon. 13-36. N. lat. 51.	
		Meiſſen	
Thuringia, langr. weſt — —		Erfurt	3620
The duchies of—	Saxe Meinungen	Meinungen	240
	Saxe Zeitz	Zeitz	
	Saxe Altenb. SE.	Altenburg	
	Saxe Weimar, W.	Weimar	1500
	Saxe Gotha, W.	Gotha	
	Saxe Eiſn. SW	Eiſnach	
	Saxe Saalfeldt	Saalfeldt	
The counties of—	Schwartſ. W.	Schwartſburg	96
	Belchin. N.	Belchingen	
	Mansfel. N.	Mansfeldt.	
The duchies of—	Hall, mid. ſub. to Pruſ.	Hall	210
	Saxe Naumburg, ſubject to its own duke	Naumburg	
The counties of	Stolberg, north-weſt	Stolberg	966
	Hohenſtein, weſt	Northhauſen	
Principality of —	Anhalt, north —	Deſſau, Zerbſt	
		Bernberg Kothen	
Biſhopric of —	Saxe Hall, weſt	Hall	696
	Voigtland, ſouth, ſubject to the elector of Saxony	Plawen	
Duchy of —	Merſburgh, middle, ſubject to the elector of Saxony	Merſburg	336

2. Lower SAXONY Circle.

Holſtein D. north of the Elbe.	Holſtein Proper, N.	Sub. to Denmark, and partly to the Duke of Holſtein Gottorp	Kiel, ſub. to Holſtein Gottorp.	1850
	Ditmarſh, weſt		Meldorp) ſubject to	
	Stormaria, ſouth		Gluckſtat) Denm.	
	Hamburg, a ſovereign ſtate		Hamburg, E. l. 10-35. N. l. 54. an Imperial city	
	Wagerland, eaſt		Lubec, an Imperial city.	
Lauenburg Duchy, north of the Elbe, ſubject to Hanover —			Lauenburg	450
Subject to the duke of Brunſwic Wolfenbuttle.	D. Brunſwic Proper.	Middle	Brun. E. l. 10-30 N. lat 52.-30.	860
	D. Wolfenbuttle		Wolfenbuttle	
	C. Rheinſtein, ſouth		Rheinſtein	
	C. Blanckenburg		Blanckenburg	

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Subject to the elector of Hanover. K. of G. Britain.	D. Calenberg	Hanover	8024
	D. Grubenhagen	Grubenhagen	
	Gottingen	Gottingen	
Luneburg D. sub. to Hanover.	D. of Luneburg Proper	Luneburg	
	D. Zell	Zell, E. lon. 10. N. lat. 52-52.	
Bremen D. and Verden D. sub. to Hanover, north —		Bremen, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 53-30. an Imperial city	2040
		Verden	693
Mecklenburg D.	D. Schwerin, north, subject to its duke	Schwerin, E. lon. 11-30. N. lat. 54.	4400
	D. Gustrow, north, subject to its duke	Gustrow.	
Hildersheim bishopric, in the middle, subject to its bishop — —		Hildersheim, an Imperial city	1302
Magdeburg duchy, south east, subject to the king of Prussia — —		Magdeburg	1535
Halberstadt duchy, subject to Prussia, south-east		Halberstadt	450

3. WESTPHALIA CIRCLE.

North Division.	Embden C. or East Fries. sub. to the king of Prussia		Embden, an Imperial city	720
	Oldenburg. C.	sub to the K. of Den.	Oldenburgh	
	Delmenhurst		Delmenhurst	
	Hoye	subject to Hanover	Hoye	624
	Diepholt		Diepholt	220
Western Division.	Munster B. sub. to its bp.		Munster, E. lon. 7-10. N. lat. 52	3600
	Paderborn B. sub. to its bp.		Paderborn	800
	Osnaburg, B. sub. to its bp.		Osnaburg	870
	Lippe C. sub. to its count		Lippe, Pyrmont,	400
	Minden D.	sub. to Pru.	Minden	495
	Ravensberg C.		Ravensberg	525
	Westphalia D. sub. to the elector of Cologn		Arensburg	1444
	Tecklenb. C.	sub. to their respective counts.	Tecklenburg	340
	Ritberg C.		Ritberg	120
	Schawenb. C.		Schawenburg	
Middle Division.	Cleves D. sub. to the king of Prussia		Cleves, E. lon. 5-36. N. lat. 51-40	630
	Berg. D.	sub to the elector Palatine.	Dusseldorf	
	Juliers D.		Juliers, Aix	1300
	Mark C. sub. to Prussia		Ham	980
	Liege, B. sub. to its own bp.		Liege, E. lon. 5-56 N. lat. 50-40	1942
			Huy	
	Benth. C. sub. to Hanover		Bentheim	418
	Steinfort C. sub. to its count		Steinfort	114

4. UPPER RHINE CIRCLE.

Hesse	Hesse Cassel, landg. N.		Cassel, E. lon. 9-20. N. lat. 51-20	3500
	Hesse Marpurgh, landg. N.		Marpurgh	
	Hesse Darmstadt, landg.		Darmstadt	396

Each of the above, subdivisions are subject to their respective landgraves.

Divisions.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.	Sq M.
Counties in the Wetteraw, south	Hesse Homberg Hesse Rhinefeldt Wonfield		Homberg Rhinefeldt Wonfield	180
	Nassau Dillenburgh Nassau Diets Nassau Hadamar Nassau Kerberg Nassau Siegen Nassau Idstein Nassau Wielburg Nassau Wisbaden Nassau Bielsteid Nassau Otweiler Nassau Usingen	Each county subject to its own count of Nassau.	Dillenburg Diets Hadamar Kerberg Siegen Idstein Weilburg Wisbaden Bielsteid Otweiler Usingen	1200
Territory of Frankfort, a sovereign state			Frankfort on the Maine, E. lon. 8-30. N. lat. 50-10. an Imperial city	120
County of Erpach, sub. to its own count			Erpach east	230
Bishopric of Spire, a sovereign state			Spire on the Rhine, an Imperial city	245
Duchy of Zuebruggen, or Deuxponts, subject to the duke of Deuxponts			Deuxponts in the Palat.	700
County of Catzenelbogen, sub. to Hesse Cassel,			Catzenelbogen on the L	hon.
Counties of	Waldec, sub to its own count Solms, sub. to its own count Hanau, sub. to Hesse Cassel Isenburg, sub. to its own C. Sayn Wied Witgenstein Hatzfield. Westerburg		Waldec Solms Hanau Isenburg Sayn Wied Witgenstein Hatzfield Westerburg	368 432
Abbey of Fulda, subject to its abbot	—		Fulda	621
Hirschfeld, subject to Hesse Cassel	—		Hirschfeld	

5. Lower RHINE Circle.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	
Palatinate of the Rhine, on both sides that river, sub. to the elector Palatine.	Heidelberg on the Neckar, E. lon. 8-40. N. lat. 49-20. Philipsburgh, Manheim, and Frankendal on the Rhine.	2618

Divisions.	Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.	
Archbishoprics and electorates of	Cologn Mentz Triers	Subject to their respective electors	Cologne, on the Rhine, E. lon. 6-40. N. lat 50-50. Bonn, on the Rhine Mentz, on the Rhine, Aschaffenb. on the Maine Triers on the Moselle	 1964 1405 1765
Bishopric of Worms, a sovereign state			Worms on the Rhine, an Imperial city	154
Duchy of Simmeren, sub. to its own duke.			Simmeren.	

	Divisions.		Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
Counties of	Rhinegraveſtein		Rhinegraveſtein	
	Meurs, ſubject to Pruſſia		Meurs	
	Veldentz, ſubject to the Elector Palatine		Veldentz	
	Spanheim		Crentznach	
	Leyningen		Leyningen	

6. FRANCONIA CIRCLE.

	Divisions.		Chief Towns.	
Biſhoprics of	Wurtſburg, W.	Subject to their reſp. biſhops	Wurtſburg	1645
	Bamberg, N.		Bamberg	1700
	Aichſtat S.		Aichſtat	513
Marquiſates of	Cullenback, north-eaſt	Sub. to their reſpective margraves.	Cullenback	900
	Anſpach, S.		Anſpach	1000

	Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	
Principality of Henneberg, N.		—	Henneberg	
Duchy of Coburg, N. ſubject to its duke			Coburg	406
Duchy of Hilburghauſen, ſubject to its duke			Hilburghauſen	
Burgravate of Nuremberg, SE. an independent ſtate		— —	Nuremberg, an Imperial city	640
Territory of the great maſter of the Teutonic order, Mergentheim, SW.			Mergentheim	56
Counties of	Reineck, W.		Reineck	
	Bareith, E. ſub. to its own mar.		Bareith	188
	Papenheim, S. ſ. to its own C.		Papenheim	
	Wertheim, W.		Wertheim	
	Caſſel, middle		Caſſel	120
	Schwartzburg, ſubject to its own count		Schwartzburg middle	96
	Holach, SW.		Holach	220

7. AUSTRIA CIRCLE.

The whole circle belongs to the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria.

	Divisions.		Chief Towns.	
Archduchy of Auſtria Proper			Vienna, E. lon. 16-20. N. lat 48-20. Lints, Ens, weſt	7106
Duchies of	Stiria and Cilley, C.		Gratz, Cilley, SE.	5000
	Carinthia		Glagenfurt, Lavem. SE.	3000
	Carniola		Laubach, Zerknitz, Trieſte, St. Veits, SE.	4576
	Goritia		Goris, SE.	
County of Tyrol		—	Inſpruc SW. on the confines of Italy and Switzerland	3900
Biſhoprics of	Brixen		Brixen k	1300
	Trent		Trent	210

8. BAVARIA CIRCLE.

Subdiviſions.		Chief Towns.	
Duchy of Bavaria Proper on the Danube	Subject to the elector Palatine as ſucceſſor to the late elector of Bavaria.	Munich, E. lon. 11-32. N. lat. 48-5. Landſhout, Ingoldſtat, north-weſt: Donawert [Ratiſ. N. an Imperial city.] Amberg [Sultzbach], north of the Danube.	8500
Palatinate of Bavaria			

Subdiviſions.

Subdivisions.		Chief Towns.		Sq. M.
Freſſingen, ſubject to its biſhop		Freſſingen	—	240
Biſhopric of Paſſau, ſubject to its own biſhop,		Paſſau, E. of the Danube		240
Duchy of Neuberg, ſubject to the elector Palatine	—	Neuberg, W. of the Danube		450
Archbiſhopric of Saltzburg, ſubject to its own archbiſhop.	—	Saltzburg, SE. Hallen.		2540

9. SWABIA CIRCLE.

Duchy of Wurtemburg, ſubject to the duke of Wurtemburg Stutgard.	Stutgard, E. lon. 9. N. lat. 48-40. Tubingen, Hailbron.	On or near the Neckar		3364
Marquiſates of Baden Baden	ſub. to their own reſpective marg.	Baden	On or near the Rhine.	258
Marquiſates of Baden Durlach	ſub. to their own reſpective marg.	Durlach	On or near the Rhine.	490
Biſhopric of Augſburg, ſubject to its own biſhop —	Augſburg, an Imperial city, Hochſtet, Blenheim, on or near the Danube			765
Territory of Ulm, a ſovereign ſtate	Ulm, on the Danube, an Imperial city			280
Biſhopric of Conſtance, ſubject to its own biſhop, under the houſe of Auſtria	Conſtance, on the lake of Conſtance.			60
Principalities of Mindelheim	Subject to their reſpective princes	Mindelh. S. of Augſ.		216
Principalities of Furſtenberg	Subject to their reſpective princes	Furſtenberg, S.		788
Principalities of Hohenzollern	Subject to their reſpective princes	Hohenzollern, S.		150
Counties of Oeting		Oeting, eaſt.		580
Counties of Konigſeck		Konigſeck, ſouth-eaſt		
Counties of Hohenrichburg		Gemund, north		379
Baronies of Waldburg		Waldburg, ſouth-eaſt		
Baronies of Limpurg		Limpurg, north		120
Abbies of Kempten		Kempton on the Iller.		
Abbies of Buchaw		Buchaw, S. of the Danube.		
Abbies of Lindaw		Lindaw, on the lake of Conſtance, Imperial cities.		
Imperial cities, or ſovereign ſtates		Nordlingen, N. of the Danube. Memmingen, eaſt. Rotweil, on the Neckar, and many more.		
Subject to the houſe of Auſtria. Black foreſt, NW. Rhinefield C.		Rhinefield and Lauffenb.		480
Subject to the houſe of Auſtria. Marquiſate of Burgaw		Burgaw, eaſt		650
Subject to the houſe of Auſtria. Territory of Briſgaw on the Rhine		Friburg and Briſac		380

NAME.] Great part of modern Germany lay in ancient Gaul, as I have already mentioned: and the word Germany is of itſelf but modern. Many fanciful derivations have been given of the word; the moſt probable is, that it is compounded of *Ger* or *Gar*, and *Man*; which, in the ancient Celtic, ſignifies a warlike man. The Germans went by various other names, ſuch as Allemanni, Teutones; which laſt is ſaid to have been their moſt ancient deſignation; and the Germans themſelves call their country Teutchland.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND SOIL.] The climate of Germany, as in all large tracts of country, differs greatly, not only on account of the ſituation, north, eaſt, ſouth, and weſt, but according to the improvement of the ſoil,

which has a vaſt effect on the climate. The moſt mild and ſettled weather is found in the middle of the country, at an equal diſtance from the ſea and the Alps. In the north it is ſharp; towards the ſouth it is more temperate.

The ſoil of Germany is not improved to the full by culture; and therefore in many places it is bare and ſterile, though in others it is ſurpriſingly fruitful. Agriculture, however, is daily improving, which muſt neceſſarily change the moſt barren parts of Germany greatly to their advantage. The ſeaſons vary as much as the ſoil. In the ſouth and weſtern parts, they are more regular than thoſe that lie near the ſea, or that abound with lakes and rivers. The north wind and the eaſtern blaſts are unfavourable to vegetation. Upon the whole, there is no great difference between the ſeaſons of Germany and thoſe of Great Britain.

MOUNTAINS.] The chief mountains of Germany are the Alps, which divide it from Italy, and thoſe which ſeparate Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia from Bohemia. But many other large tracts of mountains are found in different parts of the empire.

FORESTS.] The great paſſion which the Germans have for hunting the wild boar, is the reaſon why perhaps there are more woods and chaces yet ſtanding in Germany, than in many other countries. The Hercynian foreſt which in Cæſar's time was nine days' journey in length, and ſix in breadth, is now cut down in many places, or parcelled out into woods, which go by particular names. Moſt of the woods are pine, fir, oak, and beach. There is a vaſt number of foreſts of leſs note in every part of this country; almoſt every count, baron, or gentleman, having a chace or park adorned with pleaſure-houſes, and well ſtocked with game, viz. deer, of which there are ſeven or eight ſorts, as roebucks, ſtags, &c. of all ſizes and colours, and many of a vaſt growth; plenty of hares, conies, foxes, and boars. They abound ſo much alſo with wild fowl, that in many places the peaſants have them, as well as veniſon, for their ordinary food.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] No country can boaſt a greater variety of noble large rivers than Germany. At their head ſtands the Danube or Donaw, ſo called from the ſwiftneſs of the current, and which ſome pretend to be naturally the fineſt river in the world. From Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, it is ſo broad, that in the wars between the Turks and Chriſtians, ſhips of war have been engaged on it; and its conveniency for carriage to all the countries through which it paſſes is inconceivable. The Danube, however, contains a vaſt number of cataracts and whirlpools; its ſtream is rapid, and its courſe, without reckoning turnings and windings, is computed to be 1620 miles. The other principal rivers are the Rhine, Elbe, Oder, Weſer, and Moſelle.

The chief lakes of Germany, not to mention many inferior ones, are thoſe of Conſtance and Bregentz. Beſides theſe, are the Chiemſee, or the Lake of Bavaria; and the Zirnitzer-ſee, in the Duchy of Carniola, whoſe waters often run off and return again in an extraordinary manner.

Beſides theſe lakes and rivers, in ſome of which are found pearls, Germany contains large noxious bodies of ſtanding water, which are next to peſtilential, and afflict the neighbouring natives with many deplorable diſorders.

MINERAL WATERS AND BATHS.] Germany is ſaid to contain more of theſe than all Europe beſides. All Europe has heard of the Spa waters and thoſe of Pyrmont. Thoſe of Aix-la-Chapelle are ſtill more noted. They are divided into the Emperor's Bath, and the Little Bath, and the ſprings of both are ſo hot, that they let them cool ten or twelve hours before they uſe them. Each of thoſe, and many other waters have their partizans

tizans in the medical faculty; and if we are to believe all they ſay, they cure diſeaſes internal and cutaneous, either by drinking or bathing. The baths and medicinal waters of Embs, Wiſbaden, Schwalbach, and Wildungen, are likewiſe reported to perform their wonders in almoſt all diſeaſes. The mineral ſprings at the laſt mentioned place, are ſaid to intoxicate as ſoon as wine, and therefore they are incloſed. Carlſbad and Baden baths have been deſcribed and recommended by many great phyſicians, and uſed with great ſucceſs by many royal perſonages.

After all, many are of opinion, that great part of the ſalutary virtues aſcribed to theſe waters is owing to the exerciſes and amuſements of the patients. It is the intereſt of the proprietors to provide for both; and many of the German princes feel the benefit of the many elegant and polite inſtitutions for the diverſon of the public. The neatneſs, cleanlineſs, and conveniency of the places of public reſort are inconceivable; and though at firſt they are attended with expence, yet they more than pay themſelves in a few years, by the company which crowd to them from all parts of the world; many of whom do not repair thither for health, but for amuſement and converſation.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Germany abounds in both. Many places in the circle of Auſtria, and other parts of Germany, contain mines of ſilver, quickſilver, copper, tin, iron, lead, ſulphur, nitre, and vitriol. Salt-petre, ſalt mines, and ſalt-pits are found in Auſtria Bavaria. Sileſia, and the Lower Saxony; as are carbuncles, amethyſts, jaſper, ſapphire, agate, alabaſter ſeveral ſorts of pearls, turquois ſtones, and the fineſt of ruoies, which adorn the cabinets of the greateſt princes and virtuoſi. In Bavaria, Tirol, and Liege, are quarries of curious marble, ſlate, chalk, ochre, red lead, alum, and bitumen; beſides other foſſils. In ſeveral places are dug up ſtones, which to a ſtrong fancy repreſent different animals, and ſometimes trees of the human form. Many of the German circles furniſh coal-pits, and the *terra ſigillata* of Mentz with white, yellow, and red veins, is thought to be an antidote againſt poiſon.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe differ in Germany very little, if at all, from the countries already deſcribed; but naturaliſts are of opinion, that had the Germans even before the middle of this century, been acquainted with agriculture, their country would have been the moſt fruitful of any in Europe. Even in its preſent, what we may call rude ſtate, proviſions are more cheap and plentiful in Germany than in any other country perhaps in the world; witneſs the prodigious armies which the moſt uncultivated part of it maintained during the late war, while many of the richeſt and moſt fertile provinces remained untouched.

The Rheniſh and Moſelle wines, differ from thoſe of other countries in a peculiar lightneſs, and deterſive qualities, more ſovereign in ſome diſeaſes than any medicine.

The German wild boar differs in colour from our common hogs, and is four times as large. Their fleſh, and the hams made of it, are preferred by many even to thoſe of Weſtmoreland, for flavour and grain. The *glutton* of Germany is ſaid to be the moſt voracious of all animals. Its prey is almoſt every thing that has life, which it can maſter, eſpecially birds hares, rabbits, goats, and fawns; whom they ſurpriſe artfully, and devour greedily. On theſe the glutton feeds ſo ravenouſly, that it falls into a kind of a torpid ſtate, and not being able to move, he is killed by the huntſmen; but though both boars and wolves will kill him in that condition, they will not eat him. His colour is a beautiful brown, with a faint tinge of red.

Germany yields abundance of excellent heavy horſes; but their horſes, oxen, and ſheep are not comparable to thoſe of England, probably owing

to their want of ſkill in feeding and rearing them. Some parts of Germany are remarkable for fine larks, and great variety of ſinging birds, which are ſent to all parts of Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS. MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. } As the empire of Germany is a collection of ſeparate ſtates, each having a different government and police, it hath been difficult to ſpeak with preciſion as to the number of its inhabitants; but lately the following eſtimate hath been formed of them:

Moravia	1,100,000
Auſtrian Sileſia	200,000
High and Low Luſatia	380 000
Circle of Auſtria	4,150,000
Bavaria	1,148,438
Archbiſhopric of Saltzburgh	250,000
Wurtemberg	565,890
Baden	200,000
Augſburg	40,000
Bamberg and Wurtſburg	400,000
Nuremberg	70,000
Juliers and Berg	260,000
Munſter	130,000
Oſnaburgh	116,664
The Pruſſian Eſtates in the Circle of Weſtphalia	550,000
Naſſau, Dillenberg, Siegen, Dietz, and Hadaman	74,699
Oldenbourg	79,071
Mayence	314,000
Palatinate of Rhine	289,614
Heſſe Caſſel and Darmſtadt	700,000
Fulda	7,000
Frankfort on the Main	42,600
High Saxony, and Circle of Franconia	1,326,041
Swediſh Pomerania	100,549
Pruſſian Pomerania	462,970
Brandenburgh	1,007,232
Gotha	77,898
Schwartzburg, Magdeburg, and Mansfield	271,461
Halberſtadt and Hohenſtein	130,761
Hanover	750,000
Brunſwic	166,340
Holſtein	300,000
Mecklenburgh	220,000
Mulhauſen	13,000
Hamburgh	100,000
	17,166,868

This calculation extends only to the principal parts of Germany, and when the inferior parts are added, the number in all, including the kingdom of Bohemia, is now computed at twenty-ſix millions; and when the landholders become better acquainted with agriculture and cultivation, population muſt naturally increaſe among them.

The Germans in their perſons are tall, fair, and ſtrong built. The ladies have generally fine complexions; and ſome of them, eſpecially in Saxony, have all the delicacy of features and ſhape that are ſo bewitching in ſome other countries.

Both

Both men and women affect rich dreſſes, which, in faſhion, are the ſame as in France and England; but the better ſort of men are exceſſively fond of gold and ſilver lace, eſpecially if they are in the army. The ladies at the principal courts differ not much in their dreſs from the French and Engliſh, only they are not ſo exceſſively fond of paint as the former At ſome courts they appear in rich furs; and all of them are loaded with jewels, if they can obtain them. The female part of the burghers' families, in many of the German towns, dreſs in a very different manner, and ſome of them inconceivably fantaſtic, as may be ſeen in many prints publiſhed in books of travels; but in this reſpect they are gradually reforming, and many of them make quite a different appearance in their dreſs from what they did thirty or forty years ago. As to the peaſantry and labourers, they dreſs as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments, conveniency, and circumſtances. The ſtoves made uſe of in Germany are the ſame with thoſe already mentioned in the northern nations, and are ſometimes made portable, ſo that the ladies carry them to church. In Weſtphalia, and many other parts of Germany, they ſleep between two feather beds, with ſheets ſtitched to them, which by uſe becomes a very comfortable practice. The moſt unhappy part of the Germans are the tenants of little needy princes, who ſqueeze them to keep up their own grandeur; but in general, the circumſtances of the common people are more comfortable than thoſe of their neighbours.

The Germans are naturally a frank, honeſt, hoſpitable people, free from artifice and diſguiſe. The higher orders are ridiculouſly proud of titles, anceſtry, and ſhow. The Germans in general, are thought to want animation, as their perſons promiſe more vigour and activity than they commonly exert, even in the field of battle. But when commanded by able generals, eſpecially the Italians, ſuch as Montecuculi and prince Eugene, they have done great things both againſt the Turks and the French. The Imperial arms have ſeldom made any remarkable figure againſt either of thoſe two nations, or againſt the Swedes or Spaniards, when commanded by German generals. This poſſibly might be owing to the arbitrary obſtinacy of the court of Vienna; for in the two laſt wars the Auſtrians exhibited prodigies of military valour and genius.

Induſtry, application, and perſeverance, are the great characteriſtics of the German nation, eſpecially the mechanical part of it. Their works of art would be incredible, were they not viſible, eſpecially in watch and clock making, jewelry, turnery, ſculpture, drawing, painting, and certain kinds of architecture, ſome of which I ſhall have occaſion to mention. The Germans have been charged with intemperance in eating and drinking, and perhaps not unjuſtly, owing to the vaſt plenty of their country in wine and proviſions of every kind. But thoſe practices ſeem now to be wearing out. At the greateſt tables, though the gueſts drink pretty freely at dinner, yet the repaſt is commonly finiſhed by coffee, after three or four public toaſts have been given. But no people have more feaſting at marriages, funerals, and on birth-days.

The German nobility are generally men of ſo much honour, that a ſharper in other countries, eſpecially in England, meets with more credit if he pretends to be a German, rather than any other nation. All the ſons of noblemen inherit their fathers' titles, which greatly perplexes the heralds and genealogiſts of that country. The German huſbands are not quite ſo complaiſant as thoſe of ſome other countries to their ladies, who are not entitled to any pre-eminence at the table; nor indeed do they ſeem to affect it, being far from either ambition or loquacity, though they are ſaid to

be

be ſ mewhat too fond of gaming. From what has been premiſed, it may eaſily be conceived, that many of the German nobility, having no other hereditary eſtate than a high-ſounding title, eaſily enter into their armies, and thoſe of other ſovereigns Their fondneſs for title is attended with many other inconveniences. Their princes think that the cultivation of their lands, though it might treble their revenue, is below their attention; and that, as they are a ſpecies of beings ſuperior to labourers of every kind, they would demean themſelves in being concerned in the improveme .t of their grounds.

The domeſtic diverſions of the Germans are the ſame as in England; billiards, cards, dice, fencing, dancing, and the like. In ſummer, people of faſhion repair to places of public r ſort, and drink the waters. As to their field diverſions, beſides their favourite one of hunting, they have bull and bear-baiting, and the like. The inhabitants of Vienna live luxuriouſly, a great part of their time being ſpent in feaſting and carouſing; and in winter, when the ſeveral branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground covered with ſnow, the ladies take their recreation in ſledges of different ſhapes, ſuch as griffins, tygers, ſwans, ſcollop-ſhells, &c. Here the lady ſits, dreſſed in velvet lined with rich furs, and adorned with laces and jewels, having on her head a velvet cap; and the ſledge is drawn by one horſe, ſtag, or other creature, ſet off with plumes of feathers, ribands, and bells. As this diverſion is taken chiefly in the night time, ſervants ride before the ſledges with torches, and a gentleman ſtanding on the ſledge behind, guides the horſe.

RELIGION.] This is a copious article, but I ſhall confine myſelf to what is moſt neceſſary to be known. Before the Reformation introduced by Luther, the German biſhops were poſſeſſed (as indeed many of them are at this day) of prodigious power and revenues, and were the tyrants of the emperors as well as the people. Their ignorance was only equalled by their ſuperſtition. The Bohemians were the firſt who had an idea of reformation, and made ſo glorious a ſtand for many years againſt the errors of Rome, that they were indulged in the liberty of taking the ſacrament in both kinds, and other freedoms not tolerated in the Romiſh church. This was in a great meaſure owing to the celebrated Engliſhman, John Wickliffe, who went much farther in reforming the real errors of popery than Luther himſelf, though he lived about a century and a half before him. Wickliffe was ſeconded by John Huſs and Jerome of Prague, who, notwithſtanding the emperor's ſafe-conduct, were infamouſly burnt at the council of Conſtance.

The reformation introduced afterwards by Luther*, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, though it ſtruck at the chief abuſes in the church of Rome, was thought in ſome points (particularly that of conſubſtantiation, by which the real body of Chriſt, as well as the elements of bread and wine, is ſuppoſed to be taken in the ſacrament) to be imperfect. Calviniſm†, therefore, or the religion of Geneva (as now practiſed in the church of Scotland) was introduced into Germany, and is the religion profeſſed in the territories of the king of Pruſſia, the landgrave of Heſſe, and ſome other princes, who maintain a parity of orders in the church. Some go ſo

* Born in Saxony, in the year 1483, began to diſpute the doctrines of the Romiſh church, 1517, and died, 1546, in the 63d year of his age.

† John Calvin was born in the province of Picardy, in the north of France, anno 1506. Being obliged to fly from that kingdom, he ſettled at Geneva, in 1539, where he eſtabliſhed a new form of church diſcipline, which was ſoon after embraced by ſeveral nations and ſtates, who are now denominated Preſbyterians, and, from their doctrinal articles, Calviniſts. He died at Geneva, in the year 1564; and his writings make nine volumes in folio.

far

far as to fay, that the numbers of proteſtants and papiſts in the empire are now almoſt equal. Germany, particularly Moravia, and the Palatinate, as alſo Bohemia, is over-run with ſectaries of all kinds; and Jews abound in the empire. At preſent, the modes of worſhip and forms of church government are by the proteſtant German princes conſidered in a civil rather than a religious light. The proteſtant clergy are learned and exemplary in their deportment, but the popiſh, ignorant and libertine.

ARCHBISHOP AND BISHOP-SEES.] Theſe are differently repreſented by authors; ſome of whom repreſent Vienna as being a ſuffragan to the archiepiſcopal ſee of Saltzburg; and others as being an archbiſhopric, but depending immediately upon the pope. The others are the archbiſhop of Mentz, who has under him twelve ſuffragans; but one of them, the biſhop of Bamberg, is ſaid to be exempted from his juriſdiction:—Triers has three ſuffragans;—Cologne has four;—Magdeburg has five;—Saltzburg has nine, beſides Vienna; and Bremen three.

At different periods ſince the Reformation, it has been found expedient to ſatisfy the claims of temporal princes, to ſeculariſe the following biſhopſees, Bremen, Verden, Magdeburg, Halberſtadt, Minden, Lubec, and Oſnaburg, which laſt goes alternately to the houſes of Bavaria and Hanover, and is at preſent held by his Britannic majeſty's ſecond ſon. Such of thoſe ſees as were archbiſhoprics are now conſidered as duchies, and the biſhoprics as principalities.

LANGUAGE.] The Teutonic part of the German tongue is an original language, and has no relation to the Celtic. It is called High Dutch, and is the mother tongue of all Germany; but varies ſo much in its dialect, that the people of one province ſcarcely underſtand thoſe of another. Latin and French are the moſt uſeful languages in Germany, when a traveller is ignorant of High Dutch.

The German Pater-Noſter is as follows: *Unſer Vater, der du biſt im himmel. Geheiliget werd dein name. Zukemme dein reich. Dein wille geſchehe, wie im himmel alſo auch auf erden. Unſer taglich brodt gib uns heute. Unde vergib uns unſer ſchuld, als wir vergeben unſern ſchuldigern. Unde fubre uns nicht in verſuchung. Sondern erloſe uns von dem boſen. Den dein is das reich, und die kraft, und die herr lichkeit, en ewigheit.* Amen.

LEARNING, LEARNED MEN, AND UNIVERSITIES.] No country has produced a greater variety of authors than Germany, and there is no where a more general taſte for reading, eſpecially in the proteſtant countries. Printing is encouraged to a fault; almoſt every man of letters is an author; they multiply books without number; thouſands of theſes and diſputations are annually publiſhed; for no man can be a graduate in their univerſities, who has not publiſhed one diſputation at leaſt. In this country there are 36 univerſities, of which 17 are proteſtant, 17 Roman catholic, and two mixed; beſides a vaſt number of colleges, gymnaſia, pedagogies, and Latin ſchools. There are alſo many academies and ſocieties for promoting the ſtudy of natural philoſophy, the belles lettres, antiquities, painting, ſculpture, architecture, &c. as the Imperial Leopoldine academy of the *naturæ curioſi*; the academy of ſciences at Vienna, at Berlin, at Gottingen, at Erfurth, at Leipſic, at Duiſburg, at Gieſen and at Hamburg. At Dreſden and Nuremberg are academies for painting: at Berlin a royal military academy; and at Augſburg is the Imperial Franciſcan academy of fine arts; to which we may add the Latin ſociety at Jena. Of the public libraries the moſt celebrated are thoſe of Vienna, Berlin, Halle, Wolfenbuttle, Hanover, Gottingen, Weymar, and Leipſic.

Many of the Germans have greatly diſtinguiſhed themſelves in various branches of learning and ſcience. They have written largely upon the Ro-

man and canon laws. Stahl, Van Swieten, Stork, Hoffman, and Haller, have contributed greatly to the improvement of phyſic; Ruvinus and Dillenius, of botany; Heiſter, of anatomy and ſurgery; and Newman, Zimmerman, Pott, and Margraff, of chemiſtry. In aſtronomy, Kepler deſervedly obtained a great reputation; and Puffendorf is one of the firſt writers on the law of nature and nations, and has alſo merit as an hiſtorian. But at the end of the laſt century, and the beginning of the preſent, Germany, by her divines, and by her religious ſects, was ſo much involved in diſputes about ſyſtematic theology, that few comparatively paid any attention to other parts of learning, or to polite literature. The language alſo, and the ſtyle of writing in German books, which at the time of the Reformation was pure and original, became ridiculous, by a continual intermixture of Latin and French words; and though they were not underſtood by the people in general, were thought to give an air of ſuperiority to the writers, and therefore much affected. For an opinion prevailed among the learned in Germany, and many have not yet diveſted themſelves of it, that compiling huge volumes, and larding them with numberleſs quotations from all ſorts of authors, and from all languages, was the true teſt of great erudition. Their productions, therefore, became heavy and pedantical, and were in conſequence diſregarded by other nations.

It was about the year 1730, that the proſpects of literature in Germany began to brighten. Leibnitz and Wolfius opened the way to a better philoſophy than had hitherto prevailed. Gottſched, an author and profeſſor at Leipſic, who has been greatly honoured by the preſent king of Pruſſia, introduced a better taſte of writing, by publiſhing a German grammar, and by inſtituting a literary ſociety, for poliſhing and reſtoring to its purity the German language, and by promoting the ſtudy of the *belles lettres*. We may conſider this as the epocha, from which the Germans began to write with elegance in their own language, upon learned ſubjects; and to free themſelves, in a conſiderable degree, from that verboſeneſs and pedantry by which they had been characteriſed. About this time ſeveral young men in the univerſity of Leipſic, and other parts of Lower Germany, united in publiſhing ſome periodical works, calculated for the general entertainment of perſons of literary taſte. Some of theſe gentlemen afterwards became eminent authors; and their works are held in Germany in high eſtimation.

The ſtyle of preaching among the German divines alſo now underwent a conſiderable change. They began to tranſlate the beſt Engliſh and French ſermons, particularly thoſe of Tillotſon, Sherlock, Saurin, Bourdaloue, and others. They improved by theſe models: and Moſheim, Jeruſalem, Spalding, Zollikofer, and others, have publiſhed ſermons which would do credit to any country; although they ſtill retain too much of that prolixity, for which German divines and commentators have been ſo much cenſured. Nor can it be denied, that great numbers of the German preachers, even in large and opulent towns, are ſtill too much diſtinguiſhed by vulgar language, abſurd opinions, and an inattention to the dictates of reaſon and good ſenſe.

Some of the Engliſh periodical writings, ſuch as the Spectator, Tatler, and Guardian, being tranſlated into the German language, excited great emulation among the writers of that country, and a number of periodical papers appeared, of various merit. One of the firſt and beſt was publiſhed at Hamburgh, under the title of "The Patriot;" in which Dr. Thomas, the late biſhop of Saliſbury, was concerned; he being at that time chaplain to the Britiſh factory at Hamburg, and a conſiderable maſter of the Ger-

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man language. The late profeſſor Gillert, who is one of the moſt elegant of the German authors, and one of the moſt eſteemed, has greatly contributed to the improvement of their taſte. His way of writing is particularly adapted to touch the heart, and to inſpire ſentiments of morality and piety. His fables and narrations, written in German verſe, his letters, and his moral romances, are ſo much read in Germany, that even many of the ladies have them almoſt by heart. His comedies are alſo very popular; though they are rather too ſentimental, and better adapted for the cloſet than for the ſtage.

Haller, the famous phyſician, Hagedorn, Uz, Cronegh, Leſſing, Gleim, Gerſtenberger, Kleiſt, Klopſtock, Ramler, Zacarie, Wieland, and others, have excelled in poetry. Schlegel, Cronegh, Leſſing, Wieland, and Wieſe, have acquired fame by their dramatic writings. Rabener has, by his ſatirical works, immortalized his name among the Germans; though ſome of his pieces are of too local a nature, and too much confined to German cuſtoms, manners, and characters, to be read with any high degree of pleaſure by perſons of other nations. Geſner, whoſe Idylls and Death of Abel have been tranſlated into the Engliſh language, is known among us in a more favourable light.

In chemiſtry, and in medicine, the merit of the Germans is very conſpicuous; and Reimarus, Zimmermann, Abt, Kaeſtner, Segner, Lambert, Mayer, Kruger, and Sulger, have acquired fame by their philoſophical writings. Buſching is an excellent geographical writer; and Maſco, Bunau, Putter, Gatterer, and Gebaur, have excelled in hiſtorical works. But it cannot be denied that the Germans, in their romances, are a century behind us. Moſt of their publications of this kind are imitations of our's, or elſe very dry and unintereſting; which perhaps is owing to education, to falſe delicacy, or to a certain taſte of knight-errantry, which is ſtill predominant among ſome of their novel-writers.

In works relating to antiquity, and the arts known among the ancients, the names of Winckelman, Klog, and Leſſing, are familiar with thoſe who are ſkilled in this branch of literature. In eccleſiaſtical, philoſophical, and literary hiſtory, the names of Albertus Fabricius, Moſheim, Semler, and Brucker, are well known among us. Raphelius, Michaelis, and Walch, are famous in ſacred literature. Cellarius, Burman, Taubman, Reiſke, Erneſti, Reimarus, Havercamp, and Heyne, have publiſhed ſome of the beſt editions of Greek and Latin claſſics.

It is an unfavourable circumſtance for German literature, that the French language ſhould be ſo faſhionable in the German courts inſtead of the German, and that ſo many of their princes ſhould give it ſo decided a preference. Even the late king of Pruſſia had ordered the Philoſophical Tranſactions of his royal ſociety at Berlin, from the beginning of its inſtitution, to be publiſhed in the French tongue; by which, ſome of the Germans think, his majeſty has caſt a very undeſerved reproach upon his native language.

With reſpect to the fine arts, the Germans have acquitted themſelves tolerably well. Germany has produced ſome good painters, architects, ſculptors, and engravers. They even pretend to have been the firſt inventors of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto. Printing, if firſt invented in Holland, was ſoon after greatly improved in Germany. The Germans are generally allowed to be the firſt inventors of great guns; as alſo of gunpowder in Europe, about the year 1320. Germany has likewiſe produced ſome excellent muſicians; Handel, Bach, and Haſſe, of whom Handel ſtands at the head; and it is acknowledged, that he arrived at the ſublime of muſic, but he had not the ſmalleſt idea between muſic and ſentimental expreſſion.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE; with occaſional eſtimates of REVENUES AND POPULATION.

This is a copious head in all countries, but more particularly ſo in Germany, on account of the numerous independent ſtates it contains. The reader, therefore, muſt be contented with the mention of the moſt capital places, and their peculiarities.

Though Berlin is accounted the capital of all his Pruſſian majeſty's dominions, and exhibits perhaps the moſt illuſtrious example of ſudden improvement that this age can boaſt of; yet, during the late war, it was found a place of no ſtrength, and fell twice, almoſt without reſiſtance, into the hands of the Auſtrians, who, had it not been for the politeneſs of their generals, and their love of the fine arts, which always preſerves mankind from barbarity and inhumanity, would have levelled it to the ground.

Berlin lies on the river Spree, and, beſides a royal palace, has many other ſuperb palaces; it contains fourteen Lutheran, and eleven Calviniſt churches, beſides a Popiſh one. Its ſtreets and ſquares are ſpacious, and built in a very regular manner. But the houſes, though neat without, are ill-finiſhed, and ill-furniſhed within, and very indifferently provided with inhabitants. The king's palace here, and that of prince Henry, are very magnificent buildings. The opera-houſe is alſo a beautiful ſtructure: and the arſenal, which is handſomely built in the form of a ſquare, contains arms for 200,000 men. There are ſundry manufactures in Berlin, and ſeveral ſchools, libraries, and charitable foundations. The number of its inhabitants, according to Buſching, in 1755, was 126,661, including the garriſon. In the ſame year, and according to the ſame author, there were no fewer than 443 ſilk looms, 149 of half ſilks, 2858 for woollen ſtuffs, 453 for cotton, 248 for linen, 454 for lace-work, 39 frames for ſilk ſtockings, and 310 for worſted ones. They have here manufactures of tapeſtry, gold and ſilver-lace, and mirrors.

The electorate of Saxony is, by nature, the richeſt country in Germany, if not in Europe; it contains 210 walled towns, 61 market-towns, and about 3000 villages, according to the lateſt accounts of the Germans themſelves (to which, however, we are not to give an implicit belief); and the revenue, eſtimating each rix-dollar at four ſhillings and ſix-pence, amounts to 1,350,000l. This ſum is ſo moderate, when compared to the richneſs of the ſoil, which, if we are to believe Dr. Buſching, produces even diamonds, and almoſt all the precious ſtones to be found in the Eaſt Indies and elſewhere, and the variety of ſplendid manufactures, that I am apt to believe the Saxon princes to have been the moſt moderate and patriotic of any in Germany.

We can ſay little more of Dreſden, the elector of Saxony's capital, than hath been already ſaid of all fine cities, that its fortifications, palaces, public buildings, churches, charitable foundations, and, above all, its ſuburbs, are magnificent beyond all expreſſion; that it is beautifully ſituated on both ſides the Elbe; and that it is the ſchool of Germany for ſtatuary, painting, enamelling, and carving; not to mention its mirrors, and foundaries for bells and cannon, and its foreign commerce carried on by means of the Elbe. The inhabitants of Dreſden, by the lateſt accounts, amount to 110,000.

The city of Leipſic in Upper Saxony, 46 miles diſtant from Dreſden, is ſituated in a pleaſant and fertile plain on the Pleiſſe, and the inhabitants are ſaid to amount to about 40,000. There are alſo large and well built ſuburbs, with handſome gardens. Between theſe ſuburbs and the town is a fine walk of lime-trees, which was laid out in the year 1702, and encompaſſes the city. Mulberry-trees are alſo planted in the town-ditches; but

the fortifications ſeem rather calculated for the uſe of the inhabitants to walk on, than for defence. The ſtreets are clean, commodious, and agreeable, and are lighted in the night with ſeven hundred lamps. They reckon 436 merchant houſes, and 192 manufacturers of different articles, as brocades, paper, cards, &c. Leipſic has long been diſtinguiſhed for the liberty of conſcience allowed here to perſons of different ſentiments in religious matters. Here is an univerſity, which is ſtill very conſiderable, with ſix churches for the Lutherans (their's being the eſtabliſhed religion) one for the Calviniſts, and a chapel in the caſtle for thoſe of the Romiſh church. The univerſity-library conſiſts of about 26,000 volumes, 6000 of which are folios. Here is alſo a library for the magiſtrates, which conſiſts of about 36,000 volumes and near 2000 manuſcripts, and contains cabinets of urns, antiques, and medals, with many curioſities of art and nature. The Exchange is an elegant building.

The city of Hanover, the capital of that electorate, ſtands on the river Leine, and is a neat, thriving, and agreeable city. It contains about twelve hundred houſes, among which there is an electoral palace. It carries on ſome manufactures; and in its neighbourhood lie the palace and elegant gardens of Herenhauſen. The dominions of the electorate of Hanover contain about ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand people, who live in fifty-eight cities, and ſixty market towns, beſides villages. The city and ſuburbs of Bremen, belonging, by purchaſe, to the ſaid elector, contain about fifty thouſand inhabitants, who have a conſiderable trade by the Weſer. The other towns belonging to this electorate have trade and manufactures; but in general, it muſt be remarked, that the electorate has ſuffered greatly by the acceſſion of the Hanover family to the crown of Great Britain. I ſhall here juſt mention, on account of its relation to our royal family, the ſeculariſed biſhopric of Oſnaburg, lying between the rivers Weſer and Ems. The chief city, Oſnaburg has been long famous all over Europe for the manufacture known by the name of the duchy, and for the manufacture of the beſt Weſtphalia hams. The whole revenue of the biſhopric amounts to about 30,000l.

Breſlau, the capital of Sileſia, which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Bohemia, lies on the river Oder, and is a fine city, where all ſects of Chriſtians and Jews are tolerated, but the magiſtracy is Lutheran. Since Sileſia fell under the Pruſſian dominion, its trade is greatly improved, being very inconſiderable before. The manufactures of Sileſia, which principally centre at Breſlau, are numerous. The revenue of the whole is by ſome ſaid to bring his Pruſſian majeſty in near a million ſterling; but this ſum ſeems to be exaggerated; if, as other authors of good note write, it never brought into the houſe of Auſtria above 500,000l. yearly.

Frankfort on the Maine, ſo called to diſtinguiſh it from another of the ſame name on the Oder, is ſituated in a healthful, fertile, and delightful country, on the river juſt mentioned, by which it is divided into two parts, diſtinguiſhed by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhauſen. The former of theſe, being the largeſt, is divided into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are computed to contain about three thouſand houſes. The fortifications, which are both regular and ſolid, form a decagon, or figure conſiſting of ten baſtions, faced with hewn ſtone; the ditches are deep, and filled with freſh water; and all the outworks are placed before the gates. Frankfort is the uſual place of the election and coronation of the kings of the Romans, and is alſo a free and imperial city. It is of a circular form, without any ſuburbs; but the ſtreets are generally narrow, and the houſes are moſtly built of timber and plaſter, and covered with ſlate; though there are ſome handſome private ſtructures, of a kind of red marble, that deſerve the name of palaces; as

the buildings called the Compeſtel and Fronhof, the Trierſhof, the Cullenhof, the German-houſe, an auguſt edifice, ſituated near the bridge over the Maine, the Heſſe Darmſtadthof, the palace of the prince de la Tours, and the houſes of the counts of Solms, Schauenburg, and Schonborn; and there are three principal ſquares.

Vienna is the capital of the circle of Auſtria, and, being the reſidence of the emperor, is ſuppoſed to be the capital of Germany. It is a noble and a ſtrong city, and the princes of the houſe of Auſtria have omitted nothing that could contribute to its grandeur and riches. Vienna contains an excellent univerſiy, a bank, which is in the management of her own magiſtrates, and a court of commerce, immediately ſubject to the aulic council. Its religious buildings, with the walks and gardens, occupy a ſixth part of the town; but the ſuburbs are larger than the city. It would be endleſs to enumerate the many palaces of this capital, two of which are imperial; its ſquares, academies, and libraries; and, among others, the fine one of prince Eugene, with his and the imperial cabinets of curioſities. Among its rich convents, is one for the Scotch nation, built in honour of their countryman St. Colman, the patron of Auſtria; and one of the ſix gates of this city is called the Scots gate, in remembrance of ſome notable exploit performed there by the troops of that nation. The inhabitants of Vienna, including the ſuburbs, are computed at about three hundred thouſand; and the encouragement given them by their ſovereigns, has rendered this city the rendezvous of all the nations around.

After all that has been ſaid of this magnificent city, the moſt candid and ſenſible of thoſe who have viſited it, are far from being laviſh in its praiſe. The ſtreets, excepting thoſe in the ſuburbs, are narrow and dirty: the houſes and furniture of the citizens are greatly diſproportioned to the magnificence of the palaces, ſquares, and other public buildings; but, above all, the exceſſive impoſts laid by the houſe of Auſtria upon every commodity in its dominions, muſt always keep the manufacturing part of their ſubjects poor. The emperor, Joſeph II, became ſenſible of truths which were plain to all the world but his predeceſſors and their counſellors: he examined things with his own eyes, and deſcended from that haughtineſs of demeanor which rendered the imperial court ſo long diſagreeable, and even ridiculous to the reſt of Europe. In general, the condition of the Auſtrian ſubjects has been greatly meliorated ſince his acceſſion to the imperial throne; great encouragement hath been given to the proteſtants, and many of the Popiſh religious houſes, convents, &c. were ſuppreſſed by him.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } In deſcribing the mineral and other ſprings, I anticipated great part of this article, which is of itſelf very copious. Every court of Germany produces a cabinet of curioſities, artificial and natural, ancient and modern: The tun at Heidelburgh holds 800 hogſheads, and is generally full of the beſt Rheniſh wine, from which ſtrangers are ſeldom ſuffered to retire ſober. Vienna itſelf is a curioſity; for here you ſee the greateſt variety of inhabitants that is to be met with any where, as Greeks, Tranſylvanians, Sclavonians, Turks, Tartars, Hungarians, Croats, Germans, Poles, Spaniards, French, and Italians, in their proper habits. The Imperial library at Vienna is a great literary rarity, on account of its ancient manuſcripts. It contains upwards of 80,000 volumes, among which are many valuable manuſcripts in Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkiſh, Armenian, Coptic, and Chineſe; but the antiquity of ſome of them is queſtionable, particularly a New Teſtament in Greek, ſaid to have been written 1500 years ago, in gold letters, upon purple. Here are likewiſe many thouſand Greek, Roman,

man, and Gothic coins and medals; with a vaſt collection of other curioſities in art and nature. The vaſt Gothic palaces, cathedrals, caſtles, and above all, town-houſes in Germany, are very curious; they ſtrike the beholder with an idea of rude magnificence; and ſometimes they have an effect that is preferable even to Greek architecture. The chief houſes in great cities and villages have the ſame appearance, probably, as they had 400 years ago; and their fortifications generally conſiſt of a brick wall, trenches filled with water, and baſtions or half-moons.

Next to the lakes and waters, the caves and rocks are the chief natural curioſities of Germany. Mention is made of a cave, near Blackenburg, in Hartz-foreſt, of which none have yet found the end, though many have advanced into it for 20 miles; but the moſt remarkable curioſity of that kind is near Hamelen, about 30 miles from Hanover, where, at the mouth of a cave ſtands a monument which commemorates the loſs of 130 children, who where there ſwallowed up in 1284. Though this fact is very ſtrongly atteſted, it has been diſputed by ſome critics. Frequent mention is made of two rocks near Blackenburg, exactly repreſenting two monks in their proper habits; and of many ſtones which ſeem to be petrifactions of fiſhes, frogs, trees, and leaves.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Germany has vaſt advantages in point of commerce, from its ſituation in the heart of Europe, and perforated as it were with great rivers. Its native materials for commerce (beſides the mines and minerals I have already mentioned) are hemp, hops, flax, aniſe, cummin, tobacco, ſaffron, madder, truffles, variety of excellent roots and pot-herbs, and fine fruits, equal to thoſe of France and Italy. Germany exports to other countries, corn, tobacco, horſes, lean cattle, butter, cheeſe, honey, wax, wines, linen and woollen yarn, ribands, ſilk and cotton ſtuffs, toys, turnery wares in wood, metals, and ivory, goat-ſkins, wool, timber both for ſhip-building and houſes, cannon and bullets, bombs and bomb ſhells, iron plates and ſtoves, tinned plates, ſteel work, copper, braſs-wire, porcelain the fineſt upon earth, earthen-ware, glaſſes, mirrors, hogs' briſtles, mum, beer, tartar, ſmalts, zaffer, Pruſſian blue, printers' ink, and many other things. Some think that the balance of trade between England and Germany is to the diſadvantage of the former; but others are of a different opinion, as they cannot import coarſe woollen manufactures, and ſeveral other commodities, ſo cheap from any other country.

The revocation of the edict of Nantes, by Lewis XIV, which obliged the French proteſtants to ſettle in different parts of Europe, was of infinite ſervice to the German manufactures. They now make velvets, ſilks, ſtuffs of all kinds, fine and coarſe; linen and thread, and every thing neceſſary for wear, to great perfection. The porcelain of Meiſſen, in the electorate of Saxony, and its paintings, exceed that of all the world.

TRADING COMPANIES.] The Aſiatic company of Embden, eſtabliſhed by his preſent Pruſſian majeſty, was, excluſive of the Hanſeatic league, the only commercial company in Germany; but no ſhips have been ſent out ſince the year 1760. The heavy taxes that his majeſty laid on the company, has been the cauſe of its total annihilation. In the great cities of Germany, very large and extenſive partnerſhips in trade ſubſiſt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Almoſt every prince in Germany (and there are about 300 of them) is arbitrary with regard to the government of his own eſtates; but the whole of them form a great confederacy governed by political laws, at the head of which is the emperor, and whoſe power in the collective body, or the diet, is not directorial, but executive, but even that gives him vaſt influence. The ſupreme power in Germany is the diet, which is compoſed of the emperor, or, in his abſence,

of his commiſſary, and of the three colleges of the empire. The firſt of theſe is the electoral college; the ſecond is the college of princes; and the third, the college of Imperial towns.

The empire was hereditary under the race of Charlemagne, but after this, became elective; and in the beginning, all the princes, nobility, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. In the reign of Henry V, the chief officers of the empire altered the mode of election in their own favour. In the year 1239, the number of electors was reduced to ſeven. One elector was added in 1649, and another in 1692.

The dignity of the empire, though elective, has for ſome centuries belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, as being the moſt powerful of the German princes; but by French management, upon the death of Charles VI, grandfather, by the mother's ſide, to the emperor Joſeph II, the elector of Bavaria was choſen to that dignity, and died, as it is ſuppoſed, heart-broken, after a ſhort uncomfortable reign. The power of the emperor is regulated by the capitulation he ſigns at his election; and the perſon, who in his life-time is choſen king of the Romans, ſucceeds without a new election to the empire. He can confer titles and infranchiſements upon cities and towns; but as emperor he can levy no taxes, nor make war nor peace without the conſent of the diet. When that conſent is obtained, every prince muſt contribute his quota of men and money, as valued in the matriculation roll, though, perhaps, as an elector or prince, he may eſpouſe a different ſide from that of the diet. This forms the intricacy of the German conſtitution; for George II, of England, as elector of Hanover, was obliged to furniſh his quota againſt the houſe of Auſtria, and alſo againſt the king of Pruſſia, while he was fighting for them both. The emperor claims a precedency for his ambaſſadors in all Chriſtian courts.

The nine electors of the empire have each a particular office in the Imperial court, and they have the ſole election of the emperor. They are in order,

Firſt, The archbiſhop of Mentz, who is high chancellor of the empire when in Germany.

Second, The archbiſhop of Triers, who is high chancellor of the empire of France.

Third, The archbiſhop of Cologne, who is the ſame in Italy.

The king, or rather elector of Bohemia, who is cup-bearer.

The elector of Bavaria, who is grand ſewer, or officer who ſerves out the feaſts.

The elector of Saxony who is the great marſhal of the empire.

The elector of Brandenburg (now king of Pruſſia) who is great chamberlain.

The elector Palatine, who is great ſteward; and,

The elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain) who claims the poſt of archtreaſurer.

It is neceſſary for the emperor, before he calls a diet, to have the advice of thoſe members; and, during the vacancy of the Imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have juriſdiction, the former over the northern, and the latter over the ſouthern circles.

The eccleſiaſtical princes are as abſolute as the temporal ones in their ſeveral dominions. The chief of theſe, beſides the three eccleſiaſtical electors already mentioned, are the archbiſhop of Saltzburgh, the biſhops of Liege, Munſter, Spire, Worms, Wurtzburg, Straſburg, Oſnaburg, Bamberg, and Paderborn. Beſides theſe, are many other eccleſiaſtical princes. Germany abounds with many abbots and abbeſſes, whoſe juriſdictions are likewiſe abſolute; and ſome of them very conſiderable, and

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all of them are choſen by their ſeveral chapters. The chief of the ſecular princes are the Landgrave of Heſſe, the dukes of Brunſwic, Wolfenbuttle, Wirtemburg, Mecklenburgh, Saxe-Gotha, the marquiſſes of Baden and Culmbach, with the princes of Naſſau, Anhalt, Furſtenburg, and many others, who have all high titles, and are ſovereigns in their own dominions. The free cities are likewiſe ſovereign ſtates: thoſe which are Imperial, or compoſe part of the diet, bear the Imperial eagle in their arms: thoſe which are Hanſe-towns, of which we have ſpoken in the Introduction, have ſtill great privileges and immunities, but they ſubſiſt no longer as a political body.

The Imperial chamber, and that of Vienna, which is better known by the name of the Aulic-council, are the two ſupreme courts for determining the great cauſes of the empire, ariſing between its reſpective members. The Imperial council conſiſts of 50 judges or aſſeſſors. The preſident and four of them are appointed by the emperor, and each of the electors chooſes one, and the other princes and ſtates the reſt. This court is at preſent held at Wetzlar, but formerly reſided at Spire: and cauſes may be brought before it by appeal. The Aulic-council was originally no better than a revenue court of the dominions of the houſe of Auſtria. As that family's power increaſed, the juriſdiction of the aulic-council was extended upon the powers of the Imperial chamber, and even of the diet. It conſiſts of a preſident, a vice-chancellor, a vice-preſident, and a certain number of aulic counſellors, of whom ſix are proteſtants, beſides other officers, but the emperor in fact is maſter of the court. Theſe courts follow the ancient laws of the empire for their guides, the golden bull, the pacification of Paſſau, and the civil law.

Beſides theſe courts of juſtice, each of the nine circles I have already mentioned, has a director to take care of the peace and order of the circle. Theſe directors are commonly as follow: For Weſtphalia, the biſhop of Munſter, or duke of Neuburg. For Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburgh. For Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony. For the Lower Rhine, the archbiſhop of Mentz. For the Upper Rhine, the elector Palatine, or biſhop of Worms. For Franconia, the biſhop of Bamberg, or marquis of Culmbach. For Swabia, the duke of Wirtemburgh, or biſhop of Conſtance. For Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or archbiſhop of Saltzburg; and for Auſtria, the archduke of Auſtria, his Imperial majeſty.

Upon any great emergency, after the votes of the diet are collected, and ſentence pronounced; the emperor, by his prerogative, commits the execution of it to a particular prince or princeſs, whoſe troops live at free quarter upon the eſtates of the delinquent party, and he is obliged to make good all expences: upon the whole, the conſtitution of the Germanic body is of itſelf a ſtudy of no ſmall difficulty. But however plauſibly invented the ſeveral checks upon the Imperial power may be, it is certain that the houſe of Auſtria has more than once endangered the liberties of the empire, and that they have been ſaved by France. Lately, indeed, the houſe of Auſtria has met with a powerful oppoſition from the houſe of Brandenburgh, in conſequence of the activity and abilities of the preſent king of Pruſſia. Before I cloſe this head, it may be neceſſary to inform the reader of the meaning of a term which has of late frequently appeared in the German hiſtory, I mean that of the *Pragmatic Sanction*. This is no other than a proviſion made by the emperor Charles VI, for preſerving the indiviſibility of the Auſtrian dominions in the perſon of the next deſcendant of the laſt poſſeſſor, whether male or female. This proviſion has been often diſputed by other branches of the houſe of Auſtria, who have

been occaſionally ſupported by France from political views, though the pragmatic ſanction is ſtrongly guarantied by almoſt all the powers of Europe. The late emperor, elector of Bavaria, and the late king of Poland, attempted to overthrow it, as being deſcended from the daughters of the emperor Joſeph, elder brother to Charles VI. It has likewiſe been again and again oppoſed by the court of Spain.

Few of the territories of the German princes are ſo large as to be aſſigned to viceroys, to be oppreſſed and fleeced at pleaſure; nor are they entirely without redreſs when they ſuffer any grievance; they may appeal to the general diet or great council of the empire for relief. The ſubjects of the petty princes in Germany are generally the moſt unhappy; for theſe princes, affecting the grandeur and ſplendor of the more powerful, in the number and appearance of their officers and domeſtics, in their palaces, gardens, pictures, curioſities, guards, band of muſic, tables, dreſs, and furniture, are obliged to ſupport all this vain pomp and parade at the expence of their vaſſals and dependants. With reſpect to the burghers and peaſants of Germany, the former in many places enjoy great privileges; the latter alſo, in ſome parts, as in Franconia, Swabia, and on the Rhine, are generally a free people, or perform only certain ſervices to their ſuperiors, and pay the taxes; whereas, in the marquiſate of Brandenburg, Pomerania, Luſatia, Moravia, Bohemia, Auſtria, &c. they may juſtly be denominated ſlaves, though in different degrees.

REVENUES.] The only revenue falling under this head, is that of the emperor, who, as ſuch, hath an annual income of about 5000 or 6000 pounds ſterling, ariſing from ſome inconſiderable fiefs in the Black Foreſt. The Auſtrian revenues are immenſe, and are thought to amount to 7,000,000 ſterling in Germany and Italy: a ſum that goes far in thoſe countries. The father of the late king of Pruſſia, whoſe revenues were not near ſo extenſive as thoſe of his ſon, though he maintained a large army, was ſo good an œconomiſt, that he left 7,000,000 ſterling in his coffers; and ſome have thought that Sileſia alone brings above half a million ſterling every year to this king. To behold the magnificence of many of the German courts, a ſtranger is apt to conceive very high ideas of the incomes of their princes, which is owing to the high price of money in that country, and, conſequently, the low price of proviſions and manufactures. In fact, though it is plain that ſome princes have much larger revenues than others, yet we cannot ſpeak with any tolerable preciſion on a ſubject of ſuch variety and uncertainty, and which comprehends ſo many independent ſtates.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] During the two laſt wars, very little regard was paid in carrying them on to the ancient German conſtitutions, the whole management being engroſſed by the head of the houſe of Auſtria. The elector of Mentz keeps what is called a matriculation book, or regiſter, which, among other letters, contains the aſſeſſment of men and money, which every prince and ſtate, who are members of the empire, is to advance when the army of the empire takes the field. The contributions in money are called Roman months, on account of the monthly aſſeſſments, paid to the emperors when they viſited Rome. Thoſe aſſeſſments, however, are ſubject to great mutability. It is ſufficient here to ſay, that upon a moderate computation, the ſecular princes of the empire can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the eccleſiaſtical 74,500, in all 453,500; of thoſe, the emperor, as head of the houſe of Auſtria, is ſuppoſed to furniſh 90,000.

The elector of Mentz may maintain	6,000
The elector of Triers	6,000
The elector of Cologne	6,000
The biſhop of Munſter	8,000
The biſhop of Liege	8,000
The archbiſhop of Saltzburg	8,000
The biſhop of Wurtzburg	2,000
The biſhop of Bamberg	5,000
The biſhop of Paderborn	3,000
The biſhop of Oſnaburg	2,500
The abbot of Fulda	6,000
The other biſhoprics of the empire	6,000
The abbies and provoſtſhips of the empire	8,000
Total of the eccleſiaſtical princes	74,500
The emperor for Hungary	30,000
for Bohemia, Sileſia, and Moravia	30,000
for Auſtria, and other dominions	30,000
The king of Pruſſia	40,000
The elector of Saxony	25,000
The elector Palatine	15,000
The duke of Wirtemburg	15,000
The landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel	15,000
The prince of Baden	10,000
The elector of Hanover	30,000
The duke of Holſtein	12,000
The duke of Mecklenburg	15,000
The prince of Anhalt	6,000
The prince of Lawenburg	6,000
The elector of Bavaria	30,000
The dukes of Saxony	10,000
The prince of Naſſau	10,000
The other princes and Imperial towns	50,000
The ſecular princes	379,000
The eccleſiaſtical princes	74,500
	453,500

By this computation, which is far from being exaggerated, it appears, that the emperor and empire form the moſt powerful government in Europe; and if the whole force was united, and properly directed, Germany would have nothing to fear from any of its ambitious neighbours. But the different intereſts purſued by the ſeveral princes of Germany, render the power of the emperor of little conſequence, except with regard to his own forces, which are indeed very formidable. The Imperial army was computed, in 1775, to amount to two hundred thouſand.

IMPERIAL, ROYAL, AND OTHER TITLES, ARMS, AND ORDERS. The emperor of Germany pretends to be ſucceſſor to the emperors of Rome, and has long, on that account, been admitted to a tacit precedency on all public occaſions among the powers of Europe. Auſtria is but an archdukedom; nor has he, as the head of that houſe, a vote in the election of emperor, which is limited to Bohemia. Innumerable are the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, and the like, with which he is veſted as archduke. The arms of the empire are a black eagle with

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two heads, hovering with expanded wings, in a field of gold; and over the heads of the eagle is ſeen the Imperial crown. On the breaſt of the eagle is an eſcutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jeruſalem, Aragon, Anjou, Gelders, Brabant, and Barr. It would be as uſeleſs as difficult to enumerate all the different quarterings and armorial bearings of the archducal family. Every elector, and indeed every independent prince of any importance in Germany, claims a right of inſtituting orders; but the emperors pretend that they are not admiſſible unleſs confirmed by them. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, as deſcended from the houſe of Burgundy. The empreſs dowager, Eleonora, in 1662 and 1666, created two orders of ladies, or female knights; and the late empreſs-queen inſtituted the order of St. Tereſa.

The order of the *Golden Fleece* was inſtituted at Bruges, in Flanders, on the 10th of January, 1429, by Philip duke of Burgundy, on the day of his marriage with his third wife. It is ſuppoſed that he choſe the badge, it being the chief of the ſtaple manufactures of his country. It at firſt conſiſted of thirty knights, including the ſovereign, who were of the firſt families in the Low Countries, and it ſtill continues to be claſſed with the moſt illuſtrious orders of knighthood in Europe. At preſent there are two branches of it; of the one, the emperor is ſovereign, and the king of Spain of the other; all muſt prove their noble deſcent from the twelfth century. The motto of the order is "*Pretium non vile laborum.*" The *Teutonic order* owed its origin to ſome religious Germans in Jeruſalem during the cruſades, who aſſumed the title of "Teutonic knights, or brethren of the hoſpital of our Lady of the Germans at Jeruſalem." Conrade, duke of Swabia, invited them into Pruſſia, about the year 1230; ſoon after, they conquered Pruſſia for themſelves, and became one of the moſt powerful orders in Europe. By the order dividing againſt itſelf, they afterwards loſt their power and poſſeſſions; and Albert, marquis of Brandenburgh, grand-maſter of the order, on his abjuring popery, abdicated the grand-maſterſhip, ſubdued Pruſſia, and expelled all the papiſts who followed not his example. The order is now divided into two branches: the proteſtant branch, who have a houſe at Utrecht, hath been noticed in our accounts of orders in the Netherlands—that for papiſts, hath a houſe at Mergenheim, in Germany, and the members muſt take the oath of celibacy. The enſign worn by this branch is worn round the neck, pendent to a gold chain.

The time of the inſtitution of the "*Order of the Red Eagle*" is uncertain. The margrave of Bareith is ſovereign thereof, and it is generally beſtowed on general officers. In the year 1690, John George, elector of Saxony, and Frederick III, elector of Brandenburgh, on terminating their diſputes, eſtabliſhed the "*Order of Sincerity*," as a confirmation and ſecurity hereafter of their amity. The knights of this order wear a bracelet of gold; on one ſide are the names of the two princes, with this device: *Amitié ſincère*; on the other ſide are two armed hands, joined together, and placed on two ſwords, with two palm branches croſſed, with this motto, *Unis pour jamais.*

John George, duke of Saxe-Weiſſenfels, inſtituted the "*Order of the Noble Paſſion*," in the year 1704, of which the duke is the ſovereign. Each knight of the order is to contribute to the maintenance of the maimed or decayed ſoldiers in the ſervice of the ſovereign. In the year 1709, Louiſa Elizabeth, widow of Philip, duke of Saxe Merſburgh, revived the "*Order of the Death's Head*," firſt inſtituted in 1652, by her father, the duke of Wirtemburg. A princeſs of that houſe alone can be ſovereign of it, and none but women of virtue and merit (birth and fortune not regarded)

garded) be received into it. They are to avoid gaming, theatrical amuſements, and luxuries of all kinds. The badge of the order is a death's head enamelled white, ſurmounted with a croſs pattée black: above the croſs pattée, another croſs compoſed of five jewels, by which it hangs to a black riband edged with white, and on the riband theſe words, *memento mori*, worn at the breaſt.

The great order of Wirtemberg, is that "*of the Chace*," inſtituted in the year 1702, by the then duke, and improved in the year 1719. On the left ſide of the coat is a ſilver ſtar embroidered, of the ſame figure as the badge, in the middle of a green circle, with the motto *Amicitiæ Virtuſque Fœdus*. The feſtival of this order is on St. Hubert's day, he being the patron of ſportſmen.

In the year 1709, the elector Palatine revived the "*Order of St. Hubert*," firſt inſtituted by a duke of Juliers and Cleves, in memory of a victory gained by him on St. Hubert's day, in 1447. All the knights have either military employments or penſions. The archbiſhop of Saltzburgh, in 1701, inſtituted the "*Order of St. Rupert*," in honour of the founder and patron of the ſee he held, and as the apoſtle of his country. As the archbiſhop is the richeſt and moſt powerful prince of Bavaria, next to the elector, his order is in good eſteem. In the year 1729, Albert elector of Bavaria, inſtituted the "*Order of St. George, the Defender of the Immaculate Conception*," the knights of which are obliged to prove their nobility by father and mother for five generations.

The "*Order of the Golden Lion*," inſtituted by the preſent landgrave of Heſſe Caſſel, is equally a military and civil order, but moſtly conferred on general officers. The preſent landgrave hath alſo inſtituted the military "*Order of Merit*," the badge of which is a gold croſs, of eight points enamelled white, and in the centre this motto: "*Pro Virtute & Fidelitate*;" it is worn at the coat button hole, pendent to a blue riband edged with ſilver.

HISTORY.] The manners of the ancient Germans are well deſcribed by the elegant and manly pencil of Tacitus, the Roman hiſtorian. They were a brave and independant race of men, and peculiarly diſtinguiſhed by their love of liberty and arms. They oppoſed the force of the Roman empire, not in its origin or in its decline, but after it had arrived at maturity, and ſtill continued in its full vigour. The country was divided into a number of principalities, independant of each other, though occaſionally connected by a military union for defending themſelves againſt ſuch enemies as threatened the liberties of them all. At length, the Roman power, connected with artifice, prevailed over a great part of Germany, and it was reduced to the condition of a province. When the Roman empire was ſhattered by the northern barbarians, Germany was over-run by the Franks, about the year 480, and a conſiderable part of it long remained in ſubjection to earls and marquiſſes of that nation. In this ſituation Germany continued, notwithſtanding the efforts of particular chieftains, or princes, to reduce the reſt into ſubjection, until the beginning of the ninth century; then it was that Charlemagne, one of thoſe eccentric and ſuperior geniuſes who ſometimes ſtart up in a barbarous age, firſt extended his military power, and afterwards his civil authority over the whole of this empire. The poſterity of Charlemagne inherited the empire of Germany until the death of Lewis III, in the year 911, at which time the different princes, aſſuming their original independence, rejected the Carlovinian line, and placed Conrade, duke of Franconia, on the throne. Since this time, Germany has ever been conſidered as an elective monarchy. Princes of different families, according to the prevalence of their intereſt and arms, have mounted the throne. Of

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these the moſt conſiderable, until the Auſtrian line acquired the Imperial power, were the houſes of Saxony, Franconia, and Swabia. The reigns of theſe emperors contain nothing more remarkable than the conteſts between them and the popes. From hence, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, aroſe the factions of the Guelphs and Gibbelines, of which the former was attached to the pope, and the latter to the emperor; and both, by their violence and inveteracy, tended to diſquiet the empire for ſeveral ages. The emperors too were often at war with the Turks, and ſometimes the German princes, as happens in all elective kingdoms, with one another about the ſucceſſion. But what more deſerves the attention of a judicious reader than all thoſe noiſy but unintereſting diſputes, is the progreſs of government in Germany, which was in ſome meaſure oppoſite to that of the other kingdoms of Europe. When the empire raiſed by Charlemagne fell aſunder, all the different independent princes aſſumed the right of election; and thoſe now diſtinguiſhed by the name of electors, had no peculiar or legal influence in appointing a ſucceſſor to the Imperial throne; they were only the officers of the king's houſehold, his ſecretary, his ſtewards, chaplain, marſhal, or maſter of his horſe, &c. By degrees, as they lived near the king's perſon, and, like all other princes, had independent territories belonging to them, they increaſed their influence and authority; and in the reign of Otho III, of the houſe of Saxony, in the year 984, acquired the ſole right of electing the emperor*. This, while in other kingdoms of Europe, the dignity of the great lords, who were all originally allodial, or independent barons, was diminiſhed by the power of the king, as in France, and by the influence of the people, as in Great Britain; in Germany, on the other hand, the power of the electors was raiſed upon the ruins of the emperor's ſupremacy, and of the people's juriſdiction. Otho I having, in the year 962, united Italy to the empire of Germany, procured a decree from the clergy, that he and his ſucceſſors ſhould have the power of nominating the pope, and of granting inveſtitures to biſhops. Henry V, a weak and wicked prince, in the year 1122, ſurrendered up the right of inveſtiture and other powers, to the diſgrace of the Imperial dignity; but pope Benedict XII refuſing abſolution to Louis V, of Bavaria, in 1338, it was declared, in the diet of the empire, that the majority of ſuffrages of the electoral college ſhould confer the empire without the conſent of the pope, that he had no ſuperiority over the emperor, nor any right to reject or to approve of elections. In 1438, Albert II, archduke of Auſtria, was elected emperor, and the Imperial dignity continued in the male line of that family for three hundred years. One of his ſucceſſors, Maximilian, married the heireſs of Charles, duke of Burgundy, whereby Burgundy, and the ſeventeen provinces of the Netherlands, were annexed to the houſe of Auſtria. Charles V, grandſon of Maximilian, and heir to the kingdom of Spain, in right of his mother, was elected emperor in the year 1519. Under him, Mexico and Peru were conquered by the Spaniards, and in his reign happened the reformation of religion in ſeveral parts of Germany, which, however, was not confirmed by public authority till the year 1648, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, and in the reign of Ferdinand III. The reign of Charles V was continually diſturbed by his wars with the German princes and the French king, Francis I. Though ſucceſsful in the beginning of his reign, his good fortune toward the concluſion of it began to forſake him; which, with other reaſons, occaſioned his abdication of the crown.

* Wiquefort ſaith, that nothing was ſettled as to the number of electors, or the electoral dignity, till Charles IV, who was choſen emperor in 1347, and made that famous conſtitution for the election of emperors, called the *Golden Bull*, from the emperor's golden ſeal (*bulla*) affixed to it.

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His brother, Ferdinand I, who, in 1558, ſucceeded to the throne, proved a moderate prince with regard to religion. He had the addreſs to get his ſon, Maximilian, declared king of the Romans in his own life-time, and died in 1564. By his laſt will he ordered, that if either his own male iſſue, or that of his brother Charles, ſhould fail, his Auſtrian eſtates ſhould revert to his ſecond daughter Anne, wife to the elector of Bavaria, and her iſſue.

I mention this deſtination, as it gave raiſe to the late oppoſition made by the houſe of Bavaria to the pragmatic ſaction, in favour of the late empreſs queen of Hungary, on the death of her father Charles VI. The reign of Maximilian II was diſturbed with internal commotions, and an invaſion from the Turks; but he died in peace, in 1576. He was ſucceeded by his ſon Rodolph, who was involved in wars with the Hungarians, and in differences with his brother Matthias, to whom he ceded Hungary and Auſtria in his life-time. He was ſucceeded in the empire by Matthias, under whom the reformers, who went under the names of Lutherans and Calviniſts, were ſo much divided among themſelves, as to threaten the empire with a civil war. The ambition of Matthias at laſt reconciled them; but the Bohemians revolted, and threw the Imperial commiſſaries out of a window at Prague. This gave riſe to a ruinous war, which laſted thirty years. Matthias thought to have examined both parties; but they formed a confederacy, called the *Evangelic League*, which was counterbalanced by a *Catholic League*.

Matthias dying in 1618, was ſucceeded by his couſin, Ferdinand II; but the Bohemians offered their crown to Frederic, the elector palatine, the moſt powerful proteſtant prince in Germany, and ſon-in-law to his Britannic majeſty, James I. That prince was incautious enough to accept of the crown; but he loſt it, being entirely defeated by the duke of Bavaria and the Imperial generals, at the battle of Prague: and he was alſo deprived of his own electorate, the beſt part of which was given to the duke of Bavaria. The proteſtant princes of Germany, however, had among them at this time many able commanders, who were at the head of armies, and continued the war with great firmneſs and intrepidity; among them were the margrave of Baden Dourlach; Chriſtian duke of Brunſwic, and count Mansfield; the laſt was one of the beſt generals of the age. Chriſtians IV, king of Denmark, declared for them; and Richelieu, the French miniſter, was not fond of ſeeing the houſe of Auſtria aggrandiſed. The emperor, on the other hand, had excellent generals; and Chriſtian having put himſelf at the head of the evangelic league, was defeated by Tilly, an Imperialiſt of great reputation in war. Ferdinand made ſuch a uſe of his advantages obtained over the Proteſtants, that they formed a freſh confederacy at Leipſic, of which the celebrated Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was at the head. I have already deſcribed his amazing victories and progreſs, till he was killed at the battle of Lutzen, in 1632. But the proteſtant cauſe did not die with him. He had brought up a ſet of heroes, ſuch as the duke of Saxe Wiemar, Torſtenſon, Banier, and others, who ſhook the Auſtrian power, till, under the mediation of Sweden, a general peace was concluded among all the powers at war, at Munſter, in the year 1648; which forms the baſis of the preſent political ſyſtem of Europe.

Ferdinand II died in 1627, and was ſucceeded by his ſon, Ferdinand III, who died in 1657, and was ſucceeded by the emperor Leopold, a ſevere, unamiable, and not very fortunate prince. He had two great powers to contend with; France on the one ſide, and the Turks on the other; and was a loſer in his war with both. France took from him Alſace, and many other frontier places of the empire; and the Turks would have taken

Vienna,

Vienna, had not the ſiege been raiſed by John Sobieſki, king of Poland. Prince Eugene, of Savoy, was a young adventurer in arms, about the year 1697; and being one of the Imperial generals, gave the Turks the firſt checks they received in Hungary, and by the peace of Carlowitz, in 1699, Tranſylvania was ceded to the emperor. The empire, however, could not have withſtood the power of France, had not the Prince of Orange, afterwards king William III, of England, laid the foundation of the grand confederacy againſt the French power, the conſequences of which have been already deſcribed. The Hungarians ſecretly encouraged by the French, and exaſperated by the unfeeling tyranny of Leopold, were ſtill in arms, under the protection of the Porte, or Turks, when that prince died, in 1705.

He was ſucceeded by his ſon, Joſeph, who put the electors of Cologne and Bavaria to the ban of the empire; but being very ill ſerved by prince Lewis of Baden, the general of the empire, the French partly recovered their affairs, notwithſtanding their repeated defeats. The Duke of Marlborough though he obtained very ſplendid victories, had not all the ſucceſs he expected or deſerved. Joſeph himſelf was ſuſpected of a deſign to ſubvert the Germanic liberties; and it was plain, by his conduct, that he expected England ſhould take the labouring oar in the war, which was chiefly carried on for his benefit. The Engliſh were diſguſted at his slowneſs and ſelfiſhneſs; but he died in 1711, before he had reduced the Hungarians; and leaving no male iſſue, was ſucceeded in the empire by his brother, Charles VI, whom the allies were endeavouring to place on the throne of Spain, in oppoſition to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandſon to Lewis XIV.

When the peace of Utrecht took place, in 1713, Charles at firſt made a ſhow as if he would continue the war; but found himſelf unable, now that he was forſaken by the Engliſh. He therefore was obliged to conclude a peace with France at Baden, in 1714, that he might attend the progreſs of the Turks in Hungary, where they received a total defeat from Prince Eugene at the battle of Peterwaradin. They received another, of equal importance, from the ſame general, in 1717, before Belgrade, which fell into the hands of the Imperialiſts; and next year, the peace of Paſſarowitz, between them and the Turks, was concluded. Charles employed every minute of his leiſure in making arrangements for increaſing and preſerving his hereditary dominions in Italy and the Mediterranean. Happily for him, the crown of Britain devolved to the houſe of Hanover; an event which gave him a very deciſive weight in Europe, by the connections between George I, and II, in the empire. Charles was ſenſible of this, and carried matters with ſo high a hand, that about the years 1724 and 1725, a breach enſued between him and George I; and ſo unſteady was the ſyſtem of affairs all over Europe at that time, that the capital powers often changed their old alliances, and concluded new ones, contradictory to their intereſt. Without entering into particulars, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that the ſafety of Hanover, and its aggrandiſement was the main object of the Britiſh court; as that of the emperor was the eſtabliſhment of the pragmatic ſanction, in favour of the daughter, the late empreſs-queen, he having no male iſſue. Mutual conceſſions upon thoſe great points reſtored a good underſtanding between George II and the emperor Charles; and the elector of Saxony, being prevailed upon by the proſpect of gaining the throne of Poland, relinquiſhed the great claims he had upon the Auſtrian ſucceſſion.

The emperor, after this, had very bad ſucceſs in a war he entered into with the Turks, which he had undertaken chiefly to indemnify himſelf for the great ſacrifices he had made in Italy to the princes of the houſe of Bourbon. Prince Eugene was then dead, and he had no general to ſupply his place. The ſyſtem of France under Cardinal Fleury, happened at that time to be pacific, and ſhe obtained for him, from the Turks, a better

peace

peace than he had reaſon to expect. Charles, to keep the German and other European powers eaſy, had, before his death, given his eldeſt daughter, the late empreſs-queen, in marriage to the duke of Lorrain, a prince who could bring no acceſſion of power to the Auſtrian family. Charles died in 1740.

He was no ſooner in the grave, than all he had ſo long laboured for muſt have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmneſs of George II. The pragmatic ſanction was attacked on all hands. The young king of Pruſſia, with a powerful army, entered, and conquered Sileſia, which he ſaid had been wrongfully diſmembered from his family. The king of Spain and the elector of Bavaria ſet up claims directly incompatible with the pragmatic ſanction, and in this they were joined by France; though all thoſe powers had ſolemnly guaranteed it. The Imperial throne, after a conſiderable vacancy, was filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who took the title of Charles VII, in January 1742. The French poured their armies into Bohemia, where they took Prague: and the queen of Hungary, to take off the weight of Pruſſia, was forced to cede to that prince the moſt valuable part of the duchy of Sileſia by a formal treaty.

Her youth, her beauty, and ſufferings, and the noble fortitude with which ſhe bore them, touched the hearts of the Hungarians, into whoſe arms ſhe threw herſelf and her little ſon; and though they had been always remarkable for their diſaffection to the houſe of Auſtria, they declared unanimouſly in her favour. Her generals drove the French out of Bohemia; and George II, at the head of an Engliſh and Hanoverian army, gained the battle of Dettingen, in 1743. Charles VII was at this time miſerable on the Imperial throne, and driven out of his electoral dominions, as had been his anceſtor, in queen Anne's reign, for ſiding with France, and would have given the queen of Hungary almoſt her own terms; but ſhe haughtily and impoliticly rejected all accommodation, though adviſed to it by his Britannic majeſty, her beſt, and indeed only friend. This obſtinacy gave a colour for the king of Pruſſia to invade Bohemia, under pretence of ſupporting the Imperial dignity; but though he took Prague, and ſubdued the greateſt part of the kingdom, he was not ſupported by the French; upon which he abandoned all his conqueſts, and retired to Sileſia. This event confirmed the obſtinacy of the queen of Hungary, who came to an accommodation with the emperor, that ſhe might recover Sileſia. Soon after, his Imperial majeſty, in the beginning of the year 1745, died: and the duke of Lorrain, then grand-duke of Tuſcany, conſort to her Hungarian majeſty, after ſurmounting ſome difficulties, was choſen emperor, by the title of Francis I.

The bad ſucceſs of the allies againſt the French and Bavarians in the Low Countries, and the loſs of the battle of Fontenoy, retarded the operations of the empreſs-queen againſt his Pruſſian majeſty. The latter beat the emperor's brother, prince Charles, of Lorrain, who had before driven the Pruſſians out of Bohemia; and the conduct of the empreſs-queen was ſuch, that his Britannic majeſty thought proper to guarantee to him the poſſeſſion of Sileſia, as ceded by treaty. Soon after, his Pruſſian majeſty pretended that he had diſcovered a ſecret convention which had been entered into between the empreſs-queen, the empreſs of Ruſſia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, to ſtrip him of his dominions, and to divide them amongſt themſelves. Upon this his Pruſſian majeſty, all of a ſudden, drove the king of Poland out of Saxony, defeated his troops, and took poſſeſſion of Dreſden; which he held till a treaty was made under the mediation of his Britannic majeſty, by which the king of Pruſſia acknowledged the duke of Lorrain, now become great-duke of Tuſcany, for emperor. The war

continued in the Low countries, not only to the disadvantage, but to the discredit of the Austrians and Dutch, till it was finished by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in April, 1748. By that treaty, Silesia was once more guaranteed to the king of Prussia. It was not long before that monarch's jealousies were renewed and verified; and the empress of Russia's views falling in with those of the empress-queen and the king of Poland, who were unnaturally supported by France in their new schemes, a fresh war was kindled in the empire, in the year 1756. The king of Prussia declared against the admission of the Russians into Germany, and his Britannic majesty against that of the French. Upon those two principles, all former differences between these monarchs were forgotten, and the British parliament agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 670,000l. to his Prussian majesty during the continuance of the war, the flames of which were now rekindled with more fury than ever.

His Prussian majesty once more broke into Saxony, defeated the Imperial general Brown at the battle of Lowositz, forced the Saxons to lay down their arms, though almost impregnably fortified at Pirna, and the elector of Saxony again fled to his regal dominions in Poland. After this, his Prussian majesty was put to the ban of the empire; and the French poured, by one quarter, their armies, as the Russians did by another, into Germany. The conduct of his Prussian majesty on this occasion is the most amazing that is to be met with in history. He broke once more into Bohemia with inconceivable rapidity, and defeated an army of 100,000 Austrians, under general Brown, who was killed, as the brave marshal Schwerin was on the side of the Prussians. He then besieged Prague, and plied it with a most tremendous artillery; but just as he was beginning to imagine that his troops were invincible, they were defeated at Colin, by the Austrian general Daun, obliged to raise the siege, and to fall back upon Eisenach. The operations of the war now multiplied every day. The Imperialists, under count Daun, were formed into excellent troops; but they were beaten at the battle of Lissa, and the Prussians took Breslau, and obtained many other great advantages. The Russians, after entering Germany, gave a new turn to the aspect of the war, and the cautious, yet enterprizing genius of count Daun, laid his Prussian majesty under infinite difficulties, notwithstanding all his amazing victories. At first he defeated the Russians at Zorndorf; but an attack made upon his army, in the night time, by count Daun at Hochkirchen had almost proved fatal to his affairs, though he retrieved them with admirable presence of mind. He was obliged, however, to sacrifice Saxony, for the safety of Silesia; and it has been observed, that few periods of history afford such room for reflection as this campaign did; six sieges were raised almost at the same time; that of Colberg, by the Russians; that of Leipsic, by the duke of Deux Ponts, who commanded the army of the empire; that of Dresden, by Daun; and those of Neiss, Cosel, and Torgau, also by the Austrians.

Brevity obliges me to omit many capital scenes which passed at the same time in Germany, between the French, who were driven out of Hanover, and the English, or their allies. The operations on both sides are of little importance to history, because nothing was done that was decisive, though extremely burdensome and bloody to Great Britrin. Great was the ingratitude of the empress-queen to his Britannic majesty, and his allies, who were now daily threatened with the ban of the empire. The Russians had taken possession of the kingdom of Prussia, and laid siege to Colberg, the only port of his Prussian majesty in the Baltic. Till then, he had entertained too mean an opinion of the Russians; but he soon found them by far the most formidable enemies he had, advancing under count Soltikoff, in a body of 100,000 men, to Silesia. In this distress he acted with a cou-

rage and reſolution that bordered upon deſpair; but was, at laſt, totally defeated by the Ruſſians, with the loſs of 20,000 of his beſt men, in a battle near Frankfort. He became now the tennis-ball of fortune. Succeeding defeats ſeemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues towards peace were ſhut up. He had loſt, ſince the firſt of October, 1756, the great marſhal Keith, and forty brave generals, beſides thoſe who were wounded and made priſoners. At Landſhut the Imperial general, Laudohn, defeated his army under Fouquet, on which he had great dependence, and thereby opened to the Auſtrians a ready gate into Sileſia. None but his Pruſſian majeſty would have thought of continuing the war under ſuch repeated loſſes; but every defeat he received ſeemed to give him freſh ſpirits. It is not perhaps very eaſy to account for the inactivity of his enemies after his defeat near Frankfort, but by the jealouſy which the Imperial generals entertained of their Ruſſian allies. They had taken Berlin, and laid the inhabitants under pecuniary contributions; but towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the Imperialiſts in the battle of Torgau, in which count Daun was wounded. This was the beſt fought action the king of Pruſſia had ever been engaged in, but it coſt him 10,000 of his beſt troops, and was attended with no great conſequences in his favour. New reinforcements which arrived every day from Ruſſia, the taking of Colberg by the Ruſſians, and of Schweidnitz by the Auſtrians, ſeemed almoſt to have completed his ruin, when his moſt formidable enemy, the empreſs of Ruſſia, died January 5, 1762; George II had died on the 25th of October, 1760.

The deaths of thoſe illuſtrious perſonages were followed by great conſequences. The Britiſh miniſtry of George III were ſolicitous to put an end to the war, and the new emperor of Ruſſia recalled his armies. His Pruſſian majeſty was, notwithſtanding, ſo very much reduced by his loſſes, that the empreſs-queen, probably, would have completed his deſtruction, had it not been for the wiſe backwardneſs of the other German princes, not to annihilate the houſe of Brandenburgh. At firſt the empreſs-queen rejected all terms propoſed to her, and ordered 30,000 men to be added to her armies. The viſible backwardneſs of her generals to execute her orders, and the ſucceſſes obtained by his Pruſſian majeſty, at laſt prevailed upon her to agree to an armiſtice, which was ſoon followed by the treaty of Hubertſburg, February 15, 1763, which again ſecured to his Pruſſian majeſty the poſſeſſion of Sileſia.

Upon the death of the emperor, her huſband, in 1765, her ſon Joſeph, who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded him in the empire. Soon after his acceſſion, he diſcovered great talents for government, and for partitioning other countries. He joined in the diſmemberment of Poland, with Ruſſia and Pruſſia. He paid a viſit incognito, and with moderate attendants, to Rome, and the principal courts of Italy; and had a perſonal interview with his Pruſſian majeſty, though this did not prevent hoſtilities from being commenced between Auſtria and Pruſſia, on account of the ſucceſſion to the electorate of Bavaria. The Auſtrian claims on this occaſion were very unjuſt, but in the ſupport of them, while the conteſt continued, the emperor diſplayed great military ſkill. Though vaſt armies were brought into the field on both ſides, no action happened of much importance, and an accommodation at length took place. After this event, the emperor was much better employed than in the operations of war, except in his late demands on the Dutch for the free navigation of the Scheldt, &c. contrary to the ſtipulation of former treaties; in obſervance of which, to ſupport his anceſtors, the Dutch, as well as Engliſh, ſpent many millions of money, and ſacrificed thouſands of ſouls. He endeavoured, however, to promote the happineſs of his ſubjects, granted a moſt liberal

religious toleration, and ſuppreſſed moſt of the religious orders of both ſexes, as being utterly uſeleſs, and even pernicious to ſociety; and in 1783, by an edict, aboliſhed the remains of ſervitude and villainage, and fixed alſo the fees of the lawyers at a moderate amount, granting them a penſion in lieu. He alſo aboliſhed the uſe of torture in his hereditary dominions, and removed many of the grievances under which the peaſants and common people laboured. He was a prince of a philoſophical turn of mind, and mixed with his ſubjects with an eaſe and affability that are very uncommon in perſons of his rank. He loved the converſation of ingenious men, and appeared ſolicitous to cultivate that extenſive knowledge, which ennobles thoſe who poſſeſs the elevated ſtation to which he had been raiſed.

Peter-Leopold, grand duke of Tuſcany, ſucceeded his brother Joſeph II. and engaged the public praiſe by repeated inſtances of moderation and ſolid principles. His former management of his Italian ſovereignty, which was prudent and beneficent, ſhowed that he aſpired to truer reputation, than can be acquired by the mere ſplendours of royalty. One of the biſhops of Hungary, having refuſed his licence to a catholic ſubject to marry a proteſtant woman, the emperor diſmiſſed him from his ſee; but pardoned him afterwards upon conceſſion, and deſired the biſhop to exhort his brethren to comply with the imperial ordonnances, elſe no favour ſhould be ſhown.

The conference at Pilnitz, between the emperor, the king of Pruſſia, and the elector of Saxony, is the moſt memorable event ſince the peace with Turkey.

A proportional diminution of the forces of Auſtria and Pruſſia, the exchange of the Netherlands for Bavaria, the ſecularization of many German biſhoprics, are ſome of the articles mentioned. A more probable object was to eſtabliſh an alliance between the above powers for mutual defence, and for the preſervation of the peace of Germany.

Moſt of the late tranſactions of this empire, as belonging to the affairs of France, are related in our account of that nation, under which they will appear more clear and connected. After much irreſolution, Leopold ſeemed at length reſolved on war, when he died of a pleuritic fever on the firſt of March 1792, after an illneſs of four days.

His ſon Francis was raiſed to the Imperial throne in the middle of July following. The politics of the court of Vienna continue unchanged, and Francis ſeems even a more violent enemy to the French revolution than his father. Attached to his uncle's example, he is fond of war; but his conſtitution is ſaid to be weak, and his abilities have not been much tried.

Joſeph-Benedict-Auguſtus, emperor of Germany, was born in 1741, crowned king of the Romans in 1764, ſucceeded his father as emperor in 1765, married the ſame year the princeſs Joſephina-Maria, of Bavaria, who died in 1767. He had by his firſt wife (the princeſs of Parma) a daughter, Thereſa-Elizabeth, born in 1762; but ſhe is dead, and the emperor had no iſſue by his laſt conſort.

Peter-Leopold, the late emperor, ſucceeded his brother as king of Hungary and Bohemia, on Feb. 10, 1790, and was crowned king of the Romans on the 30th of Sept. following. He was born May 5, 1747; married, Feb. 16, 1765, Maria-Louiſa of Spain, and died March 1, 1792, not without ſuſpicion of poiſon. His empreſs died the 15th of May following.

Francis-Joſeph-Charles, emperor of Germany, and grand duke of Tuſcany. He was born Feb. 3, 1768; married, Jan. 6, 1788, Elizabeth, princeſs of Wirtemberg, who died 1790. He married 2dly, Sept. 17, 1790, Maria-Thereſa, of Naples, his couſin.

On the death of his father Peter-Leopold, late emperor, March 1st, 1792, he ſucceeded to the crown of Hungary and Bohemia; and July 14, 1792, was elected emperor of Germany.

He had no iſſue by his firſt marriage. By the latter he has a daughter Maria-Thereſa, born Dec. 12, 1791.

The late emperor Peter-Leopold had 15 children, the eldeſt of whom is the preſent emperor; the others are,

Ferdinand-Joſeph, born May 5, 1769; married, Sept. 17, 1790, Maria-Amelia of Naples.
Charles-Lewis, born Sept. 3, 1771.
Alexander-Leopold-Joſeph, born Aug. 1, 1772.
Maximilian, born Dec. 23, 1774; died May 9, 1778.
Joſeph-Anthony, born May 9, 1776.
Anthony-Victor, born Aug. 31, 1779.
A ſon, born Jan. 20, 1782.
Regnier-Jerom, born Sept. 30, 1783.
Thereſa-Joſepha-Charlotta-Jane, born Jan. 14, 1767.
Maria, born Jan. 14, 1767; married, Oct. 18, 1787, Anthony, brother to the elector of Saxony.
Mary-Ann-Ferdinanda-Joſepha, born April 21, 1770.
Mary-Clementina-Joſepha, born April 24, 1777; married, Sept. 1790, Francis-Jannarius, prince royal of Naples.
Maria-Joſepha-Thereſa, born Oct. 15, 1780.
A princeſs, born Oct. 22, 1784.
Maria-Antoinetta, born and died in 1786.

The late emperor has living two ſiſters, and one brother *unmarried*.

Thoſe *married* are,

Maria-Chriſtiana-Joſepha, born May 13, 1742; married, April 8, 1766, to prince Albert of Saxony.
Maria-Amelia-Joſepha, born Feb. 26, 1746; married to the reigning duke of Parma, June 27, 1769.
Mary-Caroline-Louiſa, born Aug. 13, 1752; married, April 7, 1768, to the king of the Two Sicilies.
Ferdinand-Ch.-Antonine, born June 1, 1754; married to the princeſs Maria-Beatrice of Modena, and has iſſue.
Maria-Antoinetta, born Nov. 2, 1755; married to Lewis XVI, the late unfortunate king of the French.

ELECTORS.] Three Eccleſiaſtical Electors, called Electoral Highneſſes; and five ſecular ones, Moſt Serene Electoral Highneſſes.

ECCLESIASTICAL ELECTORS.] 1. Frederic-Charles-Joſeph, baron of Erthal, archbiſhop and elector of Mentz, born July 18, 1774.

2. Prince Clement of Saxony (ſon of Auguſtus III, king of Poland) born Sept. 28, 1739, archbiſhop and elector of Treves, Feb. 10, 1768; alſo biſhop of Treiſingen and Augſburg, by diſpenſation from the Pope.

3. Maximilian-Francis, brother to the late emperor, grand maſter of the Teutonic order, archbiſhop and elector of Cologne, and biſhop of Munſter, born Dec. 8, 1756.

SECULAR ELECTORS.] 1. Francis-Joſeph-Charles, emperor of Germany, king of Hungary, Bohemia, &c. born Feb. 3, 1768.

2. Frederic-Auguſtus IV, elector and duke of Saxony, born Dec. 23, 1750; married, Jan. 17, 1769, to the princeſs Amelia-Auguſta, of Deux Ponts.

3. Charles-Frederic, elector and marquis of Brandenburg.
4. The prince of Deux Ponts, elector Palatine, &c.
5. George III, king of Great Britain, elector of Hanover, &c.

SAXE-GOTHA.] Erneſt-Lewis, duke of, nephew to the late princeſs dowager of Wales, born Jan. 30, 1745; married, May, 21, 1769, to Maria-Charlotte of Saxe-Meningen, by whom he has,

1. Erneſt, born Feb 27, 1770.
2. Emilius-Leopold, born Nov. 24, 1772.

His brother Auguſtus, born Aug. 14, 1747.

MECKLENBURG.] The houſe of Mecklenburg is divided into two branches, viz.

I. Mecklenburgh Schwerin.—Frederic, reigning duke, born Nov. 9, 1717; married, in 1746, Louiſa-Frederica, daughter of Frederic-Louis, hereditary prince of Wirtemburg Stutgard, born Feb. 3, 1722; they have no iſſue.—Iſſue of the late prince Louis, by the princeſs Charlotte-Sophia, of Saxe-Coburg-Saalfield.

Frederic-Francis, born Dec. 10, 1756.

Princeſs Ulrica-Sophia, ſiſter to the reigning duke, born July 1, 1723, governeſs of the convent of Ruhne.

II. Mecklenburgh Strelitz.—Adolphus-Frederic, reigning duke (knight of the garter), born May 5, 1738.—His brothers and ſiſters are,

1. Charles-Louis-Frederic, a lieut. general in the Hanoverian ſervice, born Oct. 10, 1741; married, Sept. 18, 1768, to Frederica-Charlotte-Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt, by whom he had iſſue,
   1. Carolina-Georgina-Louiſa-Frederica, born Nov. 17, 1769.
   2. Thereſa-Matilda-Amelia, born April 5, 1778.
   3. Erneſt-Gotlob-Albert, major-general in the Hanoverian ſervice, and governor of Zell, born Aug. 7, 1742.
   4. Chriſtiana-Sophia-Albertina, born Dec. 6, 1735.
   5. Charlotte, queen conſort of Great-Britain, born May 19, 1744; married Sept. 8, 1761; crowned Sept. 22, 1761.

THE KINGDOM OF PRUSSIA, FORMERLY DUCAL PRUSSIA.

Lat. 52°-40—to 55°-50 N.
Long. 10°-00—to 23°-23 E.

Containing 22,144 ſquare miles, with 67 inhabitants in each.—The whole dominions 60,000 ſquare miles, with 104 inhabitants to each.

SITUATION, BOUNDARIES, AND EXTENT. } THIS country is bounded to the North by part of Samogitia; to the South, by Poland Proper and Maſovia: to the Eaſt, by part of Lithuania; and to the Weſt, by Poliſh Pruſſia and the Baltic. Its greateſt length is about 160 miles, and breadth about 112.

NAME, AIR, SOIL, PRODUCE, AND RIVERS. } The name of Pruſſia is probably derived from the Boruſſi, the ancient inhabitants of the country. The air, upon the whole, is wholeſome, and the ſoil fruitful in corn and other commodities, and affords plenty of pit-coal and fuel. Its animal productions are horſes, ſheep, deer, and game, wild boars, and foxes. Its rivers and lakes are well ſtored with fiſhes; and amber, which is thought to be formed of an oil coagulated with vitriol, is found on its coaſts towards the Baltic. The woods furniſh the inhabitants with wax, honey, and pitch, beſides quantities of pot-aſhes. The rivers here ſometimes do damage by inundations; and the principal are, the Viſtula, the Pregel, the Memel or Mammel, the Paſſarge, and the Elbe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. } As Pruſſia, ſince the beginning of the preſent century,

tury, has become a moſt reſpectable power upon the continent of Europe, I ſhall, for the information of my readers, deviate from my uſual plan, that I may bring before their eyes the whole of his Pruſſian majeſty's territories, which lie ſcattered in other diviſions of Germany, Poland, Switzerland, and the northern kingdoms, with their names; all which they will find in the following table:

Proteſtants.	Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Poland.	Ducal Pruſſia	9950	160	112	KONINGSBERG	54-43 N. Lat.
	Royal Pruſſia	6400	118	104	Elbing	21-35 E. Lon.
Up. Saxony.	Brandenburg	10,910	215	110	Berlin	
	Pomerania	4820	150	63	Camin	
	Swed. Pomerania	2991	90	48	Stetin	
Lo. Saxony.	Magdeburg	1535	63	50	Magdeburgh	
	Halberſtadt	450	42	17	Halberſtat	
Bohemia.	Glatz	550	38	23	Glatz	
	Sileſia	10,000	196	92	Breſlaw	
Weſtphalia.	Minden	595	42	26	Minden	
	Ravenſburg	525	38	34	Ravenſburg	
	Lingen	120	15	11	Lingen	
	Cleves	630	43	21	Cleves	
	Meurs	35	10	6	Meurs	
	Mark	980	52	43	Ham	
	Eaſt Frieſland	690	46	32	Embden	
	Lippe	25	8	4	Lipſtadt	
	Gulich	528	44	24	Gulich	
	Tecklenburg	36	12	6	Tecklenburg	
Netherlands.	Gelder	360	34	23	Gelders	
Switzerland.	Neufchatel	320	32	20	Neufchatel	
	Total—	51,281				

Beſides a great part of Sileſia, which the preſent king of Pruſſia, under various pretences, hath wreſted from Auſtria; availing himſelf alſo of the internal troubles in Poland, he has, by virtue of no other right than that which a powerful army confers on every tyrant, ſeized upon Thorn, with the countries on the Viſtula, and the Neiſter, and other territories contiguous to his own dominions, cloſe to the walls of Dantzic. Theſe acquiſitions may be traced in the map.

I ſhall here confine myſelf to Pruſſia as a kingdom, becauſe his Pruſſian majeſty's other dominions fall under the deſcription of the countries where they lie.

The inhabitants of this kingdom alone were, by Dr. Buſching, computed to amount to 635,998 perſons capable of bearing arms: and if ſo (for I greatly doubt that this computation is exaggerated), it muſt then be more populous than is generally imagined. Since the year 1719, it is computed that about 34,000 coloniſts have removed thither from France, Switzerland, and Germany; of which number 17,000 were Saltzburgheis. Theſe emigrants have built 400 ſmall villages, 11 towns, 86 ſeats, and 50 new churches; and have founded 1000 village ſchools, chiefly in that part of the country named Little Lithuania.

The manners of the inhabitants differ but little from thoſe of the other inhabitants of Germany. The ſame may be ſaid of their cuſtoms and diverſions.

RELIGION, SCHOOLS, AND ACADEMIES. The religion of Pruſſia is very tolerant. The eſtabliſhed religions are thoſe of the Lutherans and Calviniſts, but chiefly the former; but papiſts, antipœdo-baptiſts, and

almoſt all other ſects, are here tolerated. The country, as well as the towns, abounds in ſchools. An univerſity was founded at Koningſberg in 1544; but we know of no very remarkable learned men that it has produced.

CITIES.] The kingdom of Pruſſia is divided into the German and Lithuanian departments; the former of which contains 280 pariſhes, and the latter 105.

Koningſberg, the capital of the whole kingdom, ſeated on the river Pregel, over which it has ſeven bridges, is about 84 miles from Dantzic. According to Dr. Buſching, this city is ſeven miles in circumference, and contains 3800 houſes, and about 60,000 inhabitants. This computation is a little exaggerated, becauſe it ſuppoſes, at an average, near ſixteen perſons in every houſe. Koningſberg has ever made a conſiderable figure in commerce and ſhipping, its river being navigable for ſhips; of which 493 foreign ones arrived here in the year 1752, beſides 298 coaſters; and 373 floats of timber were, in the compaſs of that year, brought down the Pregel. This city, beſides its college or univerſity, which contains 38 profeſſors, boaſts of magnificent palaces, a town-houſe, and exchange; not to mention gardens and other embelliſhments. It has a good harbour and a citadel, which is called Fredericſburg, a regular ſquare.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. } See Germany.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The preſent king of Pruſſia has endeavoured to encreaſe the commerce of his kingdom; but the deſpotic nature of his government is not favourable to trade and manufactures. The Pruſſian manufactures, however, are not inconſiderable: they conſiſt of glaſs, iron-work, paper, gunpowder, copper, and braſs mills; manufactures of cloth, camblet, linen, ſilk, ſtockings, and other articles. The inhabitants export variety of naval ſtores, amber, linſeed, and hempſeed, oatmeal, fiſh, mead, tallow, and caviar: and it is ſaid that 500 ſhips are loaded every year with thoſe commodities chiefly from Koningſberg.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] His Pruſſian majeſty is abſolute through all his dominions, and he avails himſelf to the full of his power. The government of this kingdom is by a regency of four chancellors of ſtate, viz. 1. The great maſter; 2. The great burgrave; 3. The great chancellor; and, 4. The great marſhal. There are alſo ſome other councils, and 37 bailiwicks. The ſtates conſiſt, 1. Of counſellors of ſtate; 2. Of deputies from the nobility; and, 3. From the commons. Beſides theſe inſtitutions, his majeſty has erected a board for commerce and navigation.

REVENUES.] His Pruſſian majeſty, by means of the happy ſituation of his country, its inland navigation, and its own ſkilful political regulations, derives an amazing revenue from this country, which, about a century and a half ago, was the ſeat of boors and barbariſm. It is ſaid, that amber alone brings him in 26,000 dollars annually. His other revenues ariſe from his demeſnes, his duties of cuſtoms and tolls, and the ſubſidies yearly granted by the ſeveral ſtates; but the exact ſum is not known; though we may conclude it is very conſiderable from the immenſe charges of the late war. The revenue which the king draws from Sileſia, amounts annually to 5,854,632 rix-dollars; and after deducting the expences of the military eſtabliſhment, and all others, there is a net revenue of 1,554,632 rix-dollars. His revenues now, ſince the acceſſion of Poliſh or Royal Pruſſia, muſt be greatly increaſed: excluſive of its fertility, commerce, and population, its local ſituation was of vaſt importance, as it lay between his German dominions and his kingdom of Pruſſia. By this acquiſition, his dominions are compact, and his troops may march from Berlin to Koningſberg without interruption.

MILITARY

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The Prussian army, even in time of peace, consists of about 180,000 of the best disciplined troops in the world; and, during the last war, that force was augmented to 300,000 men. But this great military force, however it may aggrandize the power and importance of the king, is utterly inconsistent with the interests of the people. The army is chiefly composed of provincial regiments; the whole Prussian dominions being divided into circles or cantons; in each of which, one or more regiments, in proportion to the size and populousness of the divisions, have been originally raised, and from it the recruits continue to be taken; and each particular regiment is always quartered, in the time of peace, near the canton from which its recruits are drawn. Whatever number of sons a peasant may have, they are all liable to be taken into the service except one, who is left to assist in the management of the farm. The rest wear badges from their childhood, to mark that they are destined to be soldiers, and obliged to enter into the service whenever they are called upon. But the maintaining so large an army, in a country naturally so little equal to it, has occasioned such a drain from population, and such a withdrawing of strength from the labours of the earth, that the present king has endeavoured in some degree to save his own peasantry, by drawing as many recruits as he could from other countries. These foreign recruits remain continually with the regiments in which they are placed; but the native Prussians have every year some months of furlough, during which they return to the houses of their fathers or brothers, and work at the business of the farm, or in any other way they please.

ARMS, AND ORDERS OF KNIGHTHOOD.] The royal arms of Prussia are, argent, an eagle displayed sable, crowned, or, for Prussia. Azure, the Imperial sceptre, or, for Courland. Argent, an eagle displayed, gules, with semicircular wreaths, for the marquisate of Brandenburgh. To these are added the respective arms of the several provinces subject to the Prussian crown.

There are four orders of knighthood, the "Order of *Concord*," instituted by Christian Ernest, margrave of Brandenburg, in the year 1660, to distinguish the part he had acted in restoring peace to many of the princes of Europe. Frederic III. elector of Brandenburg, and afterwards king of Prussia, instituted, in 1685, the "Order of *Generosity*," The knights wear a cross of eight points enamelled blue, having in the centre this motto, "*La Generosité*," pendent to a blue riband. The same prince instituted the "Order of the *Black Eagle*," on the day of his coronation at Koningsberg, in the year 1700: the sovereign is always grand-master, and the number of knights, exclusive of the royal family, is limited to thirty, who must all be admitted into the "Order of *Generosity*," previous to their receiving this, unless they be sovereign princes. The Order of "*Merit*," was instituted by the late king in the year 1740, to reward the merit of persons either in arms or arts, without distinction of birth, religion, or country; the king is sovereign, and the number of knights unlimited.

HISTORY.] The ancient history of Prussia, like that of other kingdoms, is lost in the clouds of fiction and romance. The inhabitants appear to have been a brave and warlike people, descended from the Sclavonians, and refused to submit to the neighbouring princes, who, on pretence of converting them to Christianity, wanted to subject them to slavery. They made a noble stand against the kings of Poland; one of whom, Boleslaus IV, was by them defeated and killed in 1163. They continued independent, and pagans, till the time of the crusades, when the German knights of

the Teutonic order, about the year 1227, undertook their converſion by the edge of the ſword, but upon condition of having, as a reward, the property of the country when conquered. A long ſeries of wars followed, in which the inhabitants of Pruſſia were almoſt extirpated by the religious knights, who, in the thirteenth century, after committing the moſt incredible barbarities, peopled the country with Germans. After a vaſt waſte of blood, in 1466, a peace was concluded between the knights of the Teutonic order, and Caſimir IV. king of Poland, who had undertaken the cauſe of the oppreſſed people; by which it was agreed, that the part now called Poliſh Pruſſia ſhould continue a free province, under the king's protection; and that the knights and the grand-maſter ſhould poſſeſs the other part, but were to acknowledge themſelves vaſſals of Poland. This gave riſe to freſh wars, in which the knights endeavoured, but unſucceſsfully, to throw off their vaſſalage to Poland. In 1525, Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, and the laſt grand-maſter of the Teutonic order, laid aſide the habit of his order, and embraced Lutheraniſm, and concluded a peace at Cracow, by which the margrave was acknowledged duke of the eaſt part of Pruſſia (formerly called, for that reaſon, Ducal Pruſſia), but to be held as a fief of Poland, and to deſcend to his male heirs; and upon failure of his male iſſue, to his brother, and his male heirs. Thus ended the ſovereignty of the Teutonic order in Pruſſia, after it had ſubſiſted near 300 years. In 1657, the elector Frederic William of Brandenburg, deſervedly called the Great, had Ducal Pruſſia confirmed to him; and by the convention of Welau and Bromberg, it was freed, by John Caſimir, king of Poland, from vaſſalage; and he and his deſcendants were declared independent and ſovereign lords of this part of Pruſſia.

As the proteſtant religion had been introduced into this country by the margrave Albert, and the electors of Brandenburg were now of that perſuaſion, the proteſtant intereſt favoured them ſo much, that Frederic, the ſon of Frederic William the Great, was raiſed to the dignity of king of Pruſſia, in a ſolemn aſſembly of the ſtates, and proclaimed January 18, 1701, and ſoon after acknowledged as ſuch by all the powers of Chriſtendom. His grandſon, the late king of Pruſſia, in the memoirs of his family, gives us no high idea of this firſt king's talents for government, but expatiates on thoſe of his own father, Frederic-William, who ſucceeded in 1713. He certainly was a prince of ſtrong natural parts, and performed prodigious ſervices to his country, but too often at the expence of humanity, and the magnanimity which ought to adorn a king. At his death, which happened in 1740, he is ſaid to have left ſeven millions ſterling in his treaſury, which enabled his ſon, by his wonderful victories, and the more wonderful reſources by which he repaired his defeats, to become the admiration of the preſent age. He improved the arts of peace as well as of war, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as a poet, philoſopher, and legiſlator. Some of the principal tranſactions of his reign have already been related in our account of the hiſtory of Germany. In the year 1783 he publiſhed a reſcript, ſignifying his pleaſure that no kneeling in future ſhould be practiſed in honour of his perſon, aſſigning for his reaſon, that this act of humiliation was not due but to the Divinity; and near 2,000,000 of crowns were expended by him in 1782 in draining marſhes, eſtabliſhing factories, ſettling colonies, relieving diſtreſs, and in other purpoſes of philanthropy and policy.

The preſent king of Pruſſia, who ſucceeded his uncle Auguſt 17, 1786, hath made many wiſe and ſalutary regulations for his ſubjects, and hath eſtabliſhed a court of honour to prevent the diabolical practice of duelling in his dominions.

The

The exertions of Pruſſians againſt France have been already related in our account of that nation. If we credit the French accounts, the alliance between Pruſſia and Auſtria is condemned by all the great Pruſſian ſtateſmen; has produced a political ſchiſm in the court of Berlin; and a general diſcontent prevails in Pruſſia. The war exhauſts the treaſures laid up by the great Frederic, and the recruiting of the army has become ſo difficult, that the miniſters cannot, without endangering the interior tranquillity, ſend the king an army of 30,000 men, which he ordered. Jealouſies certainly prevail between the courts of Berlin and Vienna.

The conduct of Pruſſia with regard to Poland we can hardly explain; and it would apparently have been more for the intereſt of the former to have erected the latter as a formidable independent barrier againſt Ruſſia and Auſtria, than to have expoſed itſelf to the enormous and increaſed power of Ruſſia. Pruſſia is no longer guided by the councils of the great Frederic; and ſhould that kingdom continue to purſue an impolitic ſyſtem of conduct, the inferiority of its extent and reſources will cauſe it to vaniſh as ſuddenly as it aroſe.

Frederic IV, king of Pruſſia, and elector of Brandenburg, born Sept. 25, 1744: married, July 14th, 1765, to the princeſs Elizabeth-Chriſtiana-Ulrica, of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle. 2ndly, On July 14, 1769, to Frederica-Louiſa, of Heſſe Darmſtadt.

Iſſue by the firſt marriage.

Frederica-Charlotta-Ulrica-Catherine, born May 7, 1767; married, Sept. 29, 1791, to the Duke of York, the ſecond ſon of his Britannic majeſty.

Iſſue by the latter marriage.

1. Frederic-William, born Aug. 3, 1770.
2. Frederic-Louis-Charles, born Aug. 3, 1773.
3. Frederica-Sophia-Wihelmina, born Nov. 18, 1774; married Oct. 1, 1791, to the Hereditary Prince of Orange.
4. Frederic-Chriſtian-Auguſtus, born May 1, 1780.
5. Another Prince, born Dec. 20, 1781.
6. Another Prince, born July, 1783.

Queen Dowager, Elizabeth-Chriſtian, of Brunſwick Wolfenbuttle, born Nov. 8, 1715.

Brother and ſiſter to the king.

1. Frederic-Charles-Henry, born Dec. 30, 1747.
2. Frederica-Sophia-Wihelmina, born in 1751; and married, in 1767, to the preſent Prince of Orange

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THE KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.			Degrees.
Length	478	between	48 and 52 North latitude.
Breadth	322		12 and 19 Eaſt longitude.

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Saxony and Brandenburg, on the North; by Poland and Hungary, on the Eaſt; by Auſtria, and Bavaria, on the South; and by the palatinate of Bavaria, on the Weſt: formerly comprehending, 1. Bohemia Proper; 2. Sileſia; and 3. Moravia.

Diviſions,

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Miles.	Sq. M.
1. Bohemia Proper, W. mostly subject to the House of Austria.	Prague, E. long 14-20. N. lat. 50. Konningsgratz, E. Glatz, E. subject to the King of Prussia. Egra, W.	Length 162 Breadth 142	12,060
2. Silesia, East, mostly subject to the king of Prussia.	Breslaw, E. lon. 17. N. lat. 51-15. Glogaw, N. Crossen, N. Jagendorf, S. Tropaw, S. subject to the house of Austria. Teschen, S. subject to the house of Austria.	Length 196 Breadth 92	10,250
3. Moravia, S. entirely subject to the house of Austria.	Olmutz, E. long. 16-45. N. lat. 49-40. Brin, middle. Igla, S. W.	Length 120 Breadth 88	5,424

SOIL AND AIR.] The air of Bohemia Proper is not thought so wholesome as that of the rest of Germany, though its soil and produce are pretty much the same.

MOUNTAINS AND RIVERS.] Bohemia, though almost surrounded with mountains, contains none of note or distinction: its woods are many, and the chief rivers are the Elbe, Muldaw, and Eger.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This kingdom contains rich mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre. Its chief manufactures are linen, copper, iron and glass.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] We have no certain account of the present population of Bohemia; about 150 years ago, it was computed to contain near 3,000,000 of inhabitants; but at present not above 2,100,000. The Bohemians, in their persons, habits and manners, resemble the Germans. There is among them no middle state of people; for every lord is a sovereign, and every tenant a slave. But the emperor, Joseph II, generously discharged the Bohemian peasants, on the Imperial demesnes, from the state of villainage in which they have been so long and so unjustly retained; and it will be happy if his example should be followed by the Bohemian nobility, and they be thereby led to cease to deprive their vassals of the rights of human nature. Although the Bohemians, at present, are not remarkable either for arts or arms, yet they formerly distinguished themselves as the most intrepid assertors of civil and religious liberty in Europe; witness the early introduction of the reformed religion into their country, when it was scarcely known in any other; the many glorious defeats they gave to the Austrian power, and their generous struggles for independency. Their virtues may be considered as the causes of their decay, as no means were left unemployed by their despotic masters for breaking their spirit: though it is certain their internal jealousies and dissensions greatly contributed to their subjection. Their customs and diversions are the same as Germany.

RELIGION.] Though popery is the established religion of Bohemia, yet there are many protestants among the inhabitants, who are now tolerated in

in the free exercise of their religion; and some of the Moravians have embraced a visionary unintelligible protestantism, if it deserves that name, which they have propagated, by their zealous missionaries, in several parts of the globe; some of whom, a few years ago, made proselytes in Great Britain. They have still a meeting-house in London, and have obtained an act of parliament for a settlement in the plantations.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Prague is the only Bohemian archbishopric. The bishoprics are Koningsgratz, Breslaw, and Olmutz.

LANGUAGE.] The proper language of the Bohemians is a dialect of the Sclavonian, but they generally speak German and High Dutch.

UNIVERSITY.] The only university in Bohemia is that of Prague.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Prague, the Capital of Bohemia, is one of the finest and most magnificent cities in Europe, and famous for its noble bridge. Its circumference is so large, that the grand Prussian army, in its last siege, never could completely invest it. For this reason it is able to make a vigorous defence in case of a regular siege. The inhabitants are thought not to be proportioned to its capaciousness, being computed not to exceed 70,000 Christians, and about 13,000 Jews. It contains 92 churches and chapels, and 40 cloisters. It is a place of little or no trade, and therefore the middling inhabitants are not wealthy; but the Jews are said to carry on a large commerce in jewels. Bohemia contains many other towns, some of which are fortified, but they are neither remarkable for strength or manufactures. Olmutz is the capital of Moravia; it is well fortified, and has manufactures of woollen, iron, glass, paper, and gunpowder. Breslaw, the capital of Silesia, hath been already described.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] See Germany.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The forms, and only the forms, of the old Bohemian constitution still subsist; but the government under the emperor is despotic. Their states are composed of the clergy, nobility, gentry, and representatives of towns. Their sovereigns of late have not been fond of provoking them by ill usage, as they have a general aversion towards the Austrians. This kingdom is frequently described as part of Germany, but with little reason, for it is not in any of the nine circles, nor does it contribute any thing towards the forces or revenues of the empire, nor is it subject to any of its laws. What gives some colour to this mistake is, that the king of Bohemia is the first secular elector of the empire, and their kings have been elected emperors of Germany for many years.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Bohemia are whatever the sovereign is pleased to exact from the states of the kingdom, when they are annually assembled at Prague. They may perhaps amount to 500,000l. a year.

ARMS.] The arms of Bohemia are, argent, a lion gules, the tale moved, and passed in saltier, crowned, langued, and armed, or.

HISTORY.] The Bohemian nobility used to elect their own princes, though the emperors of Germany sometimes impose a king upon them, and at length usurped that throne themselves. In the year 1438, Albert II, of Austria, received three crowns, Hungary, the Empire, and Bohemia.

In 1414, John Huss, and Jerome of Prague, two of the first reformers, and Bohemians, were burnt at the council of Constance, though the emperor of Germany had given them his protection. This occasioned an insurrection in Bohemia: the people of Prague threw the emperor's officers out of the windows of the council-chamber; and the famous Zisca, assembling an army of 40,000 Bohemians, defeated the emperor's forces in several engagements, and drove the Imperialists out of the kingdom. The divisions of the Hussites among themselves enabled the emperor to regain

regain and keep poſſeſſion of Bohemia, though an attempt was made to throw off the imperial yoke, by electing, in the year 1618, a proteſtant king in the perſon of the prince Palatine, ſon-in-law to James I. of England. The misfortunes of this prince are well known. He was driven from Bohemia by the emperor's generals, and being ſtripped of his other dominions, was forced to depend on the court of England for a ſubſiſtence. After a war of 30 years' duration, which deſolated the whole empire, the Bohemians have remained ſubject to the houſe of Auſtria.

HUNGARY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 300, Breadth 200	between	16-35 and 26 Eaſt long. / 44-50 and 49-35 North lat.	36,060

Containing 87,575 ſquare miles, with 57 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] THAT part of Hungary which belongs to the houſe of Auſtria (for it formerly included Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, Servia, Wallachia, and other countries) is bounded by Poland, on the North; by Tranſylvania and Wallachia, Eaſt; by Sclavonia, South; and by Auſtria and Moravia, Weſt.

The kingdom of Hungary is uſually divided into the Upper and Lower Hungary.

UPPER HUNGARY, NORTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief Towns	LOWER HUNGARY, SOUTH OF THE DANUBE. Chief Towns.
Preſburg, ſituated on the Danube, E. long. 17-30 N. lat. 48-20.	Buda on the Danube, E. lon. 19-20. N lat. 47-40
Newhauſel, N. W.	Gran, on the Danube, above Buda.
Leopolſtadt, N. W.	Comorra, on the Danube, in the Iſland of Schut.
Chremnits, N. W.	Raab, on the Danube, oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Schemnits, in the middle.	Atlenburg, W. oppoſite to the iſland of Schut.
Eſperies, N.	Weiſſenburg, or Alba Regalis, ſituated E. of the lake, called the Platten ſea.
Caſchaw, N.	Kaniſba, S. W. of the Platten ſea.
Tokay, N. E.	Five Churches, N. of the river Drave.
Zotmar, N. E.	
Unguar, N. E.	
Mongats, N. E.	
Waradin, Great, E.	
Segedin, S.E.	
Agria, in the middle.	
Peſt, on the Danube, oppoſite to Buda.	

To which may be added Temeſwar, which has been conſidered as diſtinct from Hungary, becauſe it was formerly governed by an independent king; and it has ſeveral times been in poſſeſſion of the Turks: but the Auſtrians gaining poſſeſſion of it, it was incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary in 1778 The Province of Temeſwar is 94 miles long, and 67 broad, containing about 3850 ſquare miles: it has been divided into four diſtricts,

diſtricts, Cſadat, Temeſwar, Werſchez, and Lugos. Temeſwar, the principal town, is ſituated E. lon. 22-15. N. lat. 45-54.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air, and conſequently the climate, of the ſouthern parts of Hungary, is found to be unhealthful, owing to its numerous lakes, ſtagnated waters, and marſhes: but the northern part being mountainous and barren, the air is ſweet and wholeſome. No country in the world can boaſt a richer ſoil, than that plain which extends 300 miles from Preſburg to Belgrade, and produces corn, graſs, eſculent plants, tobacco, ſaffron, aſparagus, melons, hops, pulſe, millet, buckwheat, delicious wine, fruits of various kinds, peaches, mulberry-trees, cheſnuts, and wood: corn is in ſuch plenty, that it ſells for one ſixth part of its price in England.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Danube, Drave, Save, Teyſſe, Meriſh, and the Temes.

WATER.] Hungary contains ſeveral lakes, particularly four among the Carpathian mountains, of conſiderable extent, and abounding with fiſh. The Hungarian baths and mineral waters are eſteemed the moſt ſovereign of any in Europe; but their magnificent buildings, raiſed by the Turks when in poſſeſſion of the country, particularly thoſe of Buda, are ſuffered to go to decay.

MOUNTAINS.] The Carpathian mountains, which divide Hungary from Poland on the north, are the chief in Hungary; though many detached mountains are found in the country. Their tops are generally covered with wood, and on their ſides grow the richeſt grapes in the world.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Hungary is remarkably well ſtocked with both. It abounds not only with gold and ſilver mines, but with plenty of excellent copper, vitriol, iron, orpiment, quickſilver, chryſocolla, and terra ſigillata. Before Hungary became the ſeat of deſtructive wars between Turks and Chriſtians, or fell under the power of the houſe of Auſtria, thoſe mines were furniſhed with proper works and workmen, and produced vaſt revenues to the native princes. The Hungarian gold and ſilver employed mint-houſes, not only in Hungary, but in Germany, and the continent of Europe; but all thoſe mines are now greatly diminiſhed in their value, their works being deſtroyed or demoliſhed: ſome of them, however, ſtill ſubſiſt, to the great emolument of the natives.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Hungary is remarkable for a fine breed of horſes, generally mouſe-coloured, and highly eſteemed by military officers, ſo that great numbers of them are exported. There is a remarkable breed of large rams in the neighbourhood of Preſburg. Its other vegetable and animal productions are in general the ſame with thoſe of Germany, and the neighbouring countries. The Hungarian wines, however, particularly Tokay, are preferable to thoſe of any other country, at leaſt in Europe.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] It was late before the northern barbarians drove the Romans out of Hungary; and ſome of the deſcendents of their legionary forces are ſtill to be diſtinguiſhed in the inland parts, by their ſpeaking Latin. Be that as it will, before the Turks got poſſeſſion of Conſtantinople, we have reaſon to think that Hungary was one of the moſt populous and powerful kingdoms in Europe: and if the houſe of Auſtria ſhould give the proper encouragement to the inhabitants to repair their works, and clear their fens, it might become ſo again in about a century hence. Both Hungaries, at preſent, excluſive of Tranſylvania and Croatia, are thought to contain about two millions and a half of inhabitants. The Hungarians have manners peculiar to themſelves. They pique themſelves

on being deſcended from thoſe heroes who formed the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Infidels. In their perſons they are well made. Their fur-caps, their cloſe-bodied coats, girded by a ſaſh, and their cloke or mantle, which is ſo contrived as to buckle under the arm, ſo that the right hand may be always at liberty, gives them an air of military dignity. The men ſhave their beards, but preſerve their whiſkers on their upper lips. Their uſual arms are the broad ſword, and a kind of pole-ax, beſides their fire-arms. The ladies are reckoned handſomer than thoſe of Auſtria, and their ſable dreſs, with ſleeves ſtraight to their arms, and their ſtays faſtened before with gold, pearl, or diamond little buttons, are well known to the French and Engliſh ladies. Both men and women, in what they call the mine towns, wear fur, and even ſheep-ſkin dreſſes. The inns upon the roads are moſt miſerable hovels, and even thoſe ſeldom to be met with. The hogs, which yield the chief animal food for their peaſants and their poultry, live in the ſame apartment with their owners. The gout and the fever, owing to the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, are the predominant diſeaſes in Hungary. The natives in general are indolent, and leave trade and manufactures to the Greeks and other ſtrangers ſettled in their country, the flatneſs of which renders travelling commodious, either by land or water. The diverſions of the inhabitants are of the warlike and athletic kind. They are in general a brave and magnanimous people. Their anceſtors, even ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were ſo jealous of their liberties, that rather than be tyranniſed over by the houſe of Auſtria, they often put themſelves under the protection of the Ottoman court; but their fidelity to the late empreſs-queen, notwithſtanding the provocations they received from her houſe, will be always remembered to their honour.

The inhabitants of Temeſwar, a province lately incorporated into the kingdom of Hungary, are computed at 450,000. There are in this country many faraons, or gypſies, ſuppoſed to be real deſcendents of the ancient Egyptians. They are ſaid to reſemble the ancient Egyptians in their features, in their propenſity to melancholy, and in many of their manners and cuſtoms; and it is aſſerted, that the laſcivious dances of Iſis, the worſhip of onions, many famous Egyptian ſuperſtitions and ſpecifics, and the Egyptian method of hatching eggs by means of dung, are ſtill in uſe among the female gypſies in Temeſwar.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of the Hungarians is the Roman catholic, though the major part of the inhabitants are proteſtants, or Greeks; and they now enjoy the full exerciſe of their religious liberties.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbiſhoprics are Preſburg, Gran, and Colocza. The biſhoprics are Great Waradin, Agria, Veſprin, Raab, and Five Churches.

LANGUAGE.] As the Hungarians are mixed with Germans, Sclavonians, and Walachians, they have a variety of dialects, and one of them is ſaid to approach near the Hebrew. The better and the middlemoſt ranks ſpeak German; and almoſt all, even of the common people, ſpeak Latin, either pure or barbarous, ſo that the Latin may be ſaid to be here ſtill a living language.

UNIVERSITIES.] In the univerſities (if they can be properly ſo called) of Firnan, Buda, Raab, and Caſchaw, are profeſſors of the ſeveral arts and ſciences, who uſed generally to be Jeſuits; ſo that the Lutherans and Calviniſts, who are more numerous than the Roman Catholics in Hungary, go to the German and other univerſities.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The artificial curioſities of this country conſiſt of its bridges, baths,

baths, and mines. The bridge of Eſſeck, built over the Danube and Drave, is, properly ſpeaking, a continuation of bridges, five miles in length, fortified with towers at certain diſtances. It was an important paſs during the wars between the Turks and Hungarians. A bridge of boats runs over the Danube, half a mile long, between Buda and Peſt; and about twenty Hungarian miles diſtant from Belgrade, are the remains of a bridge erected by the Romans, judged to be the moſt magnificent of any in the world. The baths and mines here have nothing to diſtinguiſh them from the like works in other countries.

One of the moſt remarkable natural curioſities of Hungary, is a cavern, in a mountain near Szelitze; the aperture of this cavern, which fronts the ſouth, is eighteen fathoms high, and eight broad: its ſubterraneous paſſages conſiſt entirely of ſolid rock, ſtretching away farther ſouth than has yet been diſcovered: as far as it is practicable to go, the height is found to be 50 fathoms, and the breadth 26. Many other wonderful particulars are related of this cavern, which is an article of great curioſity. Aſtoniſhing rocks are common in Hungary, and ſome of its churches are of admirable architecture.

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] Theſe are greatly decayed from their ancient magnificence; but many of the fortifications are ſtill very ſtrong, and kept in good order. Preſburg is fortified. In it the Hungarian regalia were kept, but were lately removed to Vienna. The crown was ſent, in the year 1000, by pope Sylveſter II, to Stephen, king of Hungary, and was made after that of the Greek emperors; it is of ſolid gold, weighed nine marks and three ounces, ornamented with 53 ſapphires, 50 rubies, one large emerald, and 338 pearls. Beſides theſe ſtones, are the images of the apoſtles and the patriarchs. The pope added to this crown a ſilver patriarchal croſs, which was afterwards inſerted in the arms of Hungary. At the ceremony of the coronation, a biſhop carries it before the king. From the croſs is derived the title of apoſtolic king; the uſe of which was renewed under the reign of the empreſs-queen Maria Thereſa. The ſceptre and the globe of the kingdom are of Arabian gold; the mantle, which is of fine linen, is ſaid to be the work of Giſele, ſpouſe of St. Stephen, who, they ſay, embroidered in gold the image of Jeſus Chriſt crucified, and many other images of the patriarchs and apoſtles, with a number of inſcriptions. The ſword is two-edged, and rounded at the point. Buda, formerly the capital of Hungary, retains little of its ancient magnificence, but its ſtrength and fortifications; and the ſame may be ſaid of Peſt, which lies on the oppoſite ſide of the Danube. Raab is likewiſe a ſtrong city, as are Gran and Comorra. Tokay has been already mentioned for the excellency of its wines.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] After having mentioned the natural produce of the country, it is ſufficient to ſay, that the chief manufactures and exports of the natives conſiſt of metals, drugs, and ſalt.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Hungarians diſlike the term of queen, and even called their late ſovereign, king Thereſa. Their government preſerves the remains of many checks upon the regal power. They have a diet or parliament, a Hungary-office, which reſembles our chancery, and which reſides at Vienna; as the ſtadtholder's council, which comes pretty near the Britiſh privy-council, but has a municipal juriſdiction, does at Preſburg. Every royal town has its ſenate; and the Geſpan chaſts reſemble our juſtices of the peace. Beſides this, they have an exchequer and nine chambers, and other ſubordinate courts.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The emperor can bring to the field at any time, 50,000 Hungarians in their own country, but ſeldom draws out of

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it above 10,000; theſe are generally light-horſe, and well known to modern times by the name of Huſſars. They are not near ſo large as the German horſe; and therefore the Huſſars ſtand upon their ſhort ſtirrups when they ſtrike. Their expedition and alertneſs have been found ſo ſerviceable in war, that the greateſt powers in Europe have troops that go by the ſame name. Their foot are called Heydukes, and wear feathers in their caps, according to the number of enemies they pretend to have killed: both horſe and foot are an excelient militia, very good at a purſuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle.

Coins.] Hungary was formerly remarkable for its coinage, and there are ſtill extant, in the cabinets of the curious, a complete ſeries of coins of their former kings. More Greek and Roman medals have been diſcovered in this country, than perhaps in any other in Europe.

Arms.] The emperor, as king of Hungary, for armorial enſigns, bears quarterly, barwiſe, argent, and gules of eight pieces.

History.] The Huns, after ſubduing this country in the middle of the third century, communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. They were ſucceeded by the furious Goths; the Goths were expelled by the Lombards: they by the Avari; and the Sclavi were planted in their ſtead in the beginning of the 9th century. At the cloſe of it, the Anigours emigrated from the banks of the Volga, and took poſſeſſion of the country. Hungary was formerly an aſſemblage of different ſtates; and the firſt who aſſumed the title of king, was Stephen, in the year 997, when he embraced Chriſtianity. In his reign, the form of government was eſtabliſhed, and the crown rendered elective. About the year 1310, king Charles Robert aſcended the throne, and ſubdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces; but many of thoſe conqueſts were afterwards reduced by the Venetians, Turks, and other powers. In the 15th century, Huniades, who was guardian to the infant king Ladiſlaus, bravely repulſed the Turks, when they invaded Hungary; and upon the death of Ladiſlaus, the Hungarians, in 1438, raiſed Matthias Corvinus, ſon of Huniades, to their throne. Lewis, king of Hungary, in 1526, was killed in a battle, fighting againſt Solyman, emperor of the Turks. This battle almoſt proved fatal to Hungary; but the Archduke Ferdinand, brother to the emperor Charles V, having married the ſiſter of Lewis, he claimed the title of Hungary, in which he ſucceeded, with ſome difficulty, and that kingdom has ever ſince belonged to the houſe of Auſtria, though by its conſtitution its crown ought to be elective. For the reſt of the Hungarian hiſtory, ſee Germany.

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND HUNGARIAN DALMATIA.

I HAVE thrown theſe countries under one diviſion, for ſeveral reaſons, and particularly becauſe we have no account ſufficiently exact of their extent and boundaries. The beſt account of them is as follows: Transylvania belongs to the houſe of Auſtria, and is bounded on the North by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland; on the Eaſt by Moldavia and Wallachia; on the South by Wallachia: and on the Weſt by Upper and Lower Hungary. It lies between 22 and 26 degrees of eaſt longitude, and 45 and 48 of north latitude. Its length is extended about

about 180, and its breadth 120 miles; and contains nearly 14,400 ſquare miles, but is ſurrounded on all ſides by high mountains. Its produce, vegetables and animals, are almoſt the ſame with thoſe of Hungary. The air is wholeſome and temperate; but their wine, though good, is not equal to the Hungarian. Its chief city is Hermanſtadt, and its interior government ſtill partakes greatly of the ancient feudal ſyſtem, being compoſed of many independant ſtates and princes. They owe not much more than nominal ſubjection to the Auſtrians, who leave them in poſſeſſion of moſt of their privileges. Papiſts, Lutherans, Calviniſts, Socinians, Arians, Greeks, Mahometans, and other ſectaries, here enjoy their ſeveral religions. Tranſylvania is thought to add but little to the Auſtrian revenue, though it exports ſome metals and ſalt to Hungary. The other large places are Sageſwar, Millenback, and Newmark. All ſorts of proviſions are very cheap, and excellent in their kinds. Hermanſtadt is a large, ſtrong, and well built city, as are Clauſenburg and Weiſſenburg. The ſeat of government is at Hermanſtadt, and the governor is aſſiſted by a council made up of Roman catholics, Calviniſts, and Lutherans. The diet, or parliament, meets by ſummons, and receives the commands of the ſovereign, to whom of late they have been more devoted than formerly. They have a liberty of making remonſtrances and repreſentations in caſe of grievances.

Tranſylvania is part of ancient Dacia, the inhabitants of which long employed the Roman arms before they could be ſubdued. It was over-run by the Goths on the decline of the Roman empire, and then by the Huns. Their deſcendants retain the ſame military character. The population of the country is not aſcertained; but if the Tranſylvanians can bring to the field, as has been aſſerted, 30,000 troops, the whole number of inhabitants muſt be conſiderable. At preſent, its military force is reduced to ſix regiments of 1500 men each; but it is well known, that during the laſt two wars in which the Houſe of Auſtria was engaged, the Tranſylvanians did great ſervices. Hermanſtadt is its only biſhopric; and the Tranſylvanians at preſent ſeem to trouble themſelves little either about learning or religion, though the Roman catholic is the eſtabliſhed church. Stephen I, king of Hungary, introduced Chriſtianity there about the year 1000, and it was afterwards governed by an Hungarian vaviod, or viceroy. The various revolutions in their government prove their impatience under ſlavery; and though the treaty of Carlowits, in 1699, gave the ſovereignty of Tranſylvania, as alſo of Sclavonia, to the Houſe of Auſtria, yet the natives enjoy what we may call a loyal ariſtocracy, which their ſovereigns do not think proper to invade. In October, 1784, on account of the real or feigned oppreſſions of the nobility, near 16,000 aſſembled, and committed great depredations on thoſe whoſe conduct had been reſented. Several had their palaces burnt, and were glad to eſcape with their lives. The revolters were diſappointed in their attempt on Clauſenburg; and afterwards offered to ſeparate, and go home in peace, on the terms of a general pardon, better treatment from the nobility, and a freedom from vaſſalage. In the preſent ſituation of the Auſtrians, lenient terms have been granted to them, and, with the puniſhment of a few, the inſurrection was ſuppreſſed.

Sclavonia lies between the 17th and 21ſt degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 55th and 46th of north latitude. It is thought to be about 200 miles in length, and 60 in breadth, and contains about 10,000 ſquare miles. It is bounded by the Drave on the north, by the Danube on the eaſt, by the Save on the ſouth, and by Kiria in Auſtria on the weſt. The reaſon why Hungary, Tranſylvania, Sclavonia, and the other nations, ſubject to the Houſe of Auſtria in thoſe parts, contain a ſurpriſing variety

of people, differing in name, language, and manners, is becauſe liberty here made its laſt ſtand againſt the Roman arms, which by degrees forced the remains of the different nations they had conquered into thoſe quarters. The thickneſs of the woods, the rapidity of the rivers, and the ſtrength of the country, favoured their reſiſtance; and their deſcendants, notwithſtanding the power of the Turks, the Auſtrians, the Hungarians, and the Poles, ſtill retain the ſame ſpirit of independency. Without minding the arrangements made by the ſovereigns of Europe, they are quiet under the government that leaves them moſt at liberty. That they are generous, as well as brave, appears from their attachment to the houſe of Auſtria, which till the laſt two wars, never was ſenſible of their value and valour; inſomuch that it is well known, that they preſerved the pragmatic ſanction, and kept the Imperial crown in that family. The Sclavonians formerly gave ſo much work to the Roman arms, that it is thought the word *ſlave* took its original from them, on account of the great numbers of them who were carried into bondage, ſo late as the reign of Charlemagne. Though Sclavonia yields neither in beauty nor fertility to Hungary and Tranſylvania, yet the ravages of war are ſtill viſible in the face of the country, which lies in a great meaſure unimproved. The Sclavonians, from their ignorance, perhaps, are zealous Roman Catholics, though Greeks and Jews are tolerated. Here we meet with two biſhoprics; that of Poſega, which is the capital of the country, and Zagrab, which lies on the Drave; but we know of no univerſities. Eſſeck is a large and ſtrong town, remarkable, as before noticed, for a wooden bridge over the Drave, and adjoining marſhes, five miles long, and fifteen paces broad, built by the Turks. Waradin and Peterwaradin are places noted in the wars between the Auſtrians and Turks. The inhabitants are compoſed of Servians, Radzians, Crcats, Wallachians, Germans, Hungarians, and a vaſt number of other people, whoſe names were never known even to the Auſtrians themſelves, but from the military muſter-rolls, when they poured their troops into the field during the laſt two wars. In 1746, Sclavonia was united to Hungary, and the ſtates ſend repreſentatives to the diet of Hungary.

CROATIA lies between the 15th and 17th degrees of eaſt longitude, and the 45th and 47th of north latitude. It is 80 miles in length, and 70 in breadth, and about 2,500 ſquare miles. The manners, government, religion, language and cuſtoms of the Croats, are ſimilar to thoſe of the Sclavonians and Tranſylvanians, who are their neighbours. They are excellent irregular troops, and as ſuch are famed in modern hiſtory, under the name of Pandours, and various other deſignations. The truth is, the houſe of Auſtria finds its intereſt in ſuffering them and the neighbouring nations to live in their own manner. The towns are blended with each other, there ſcarcely being any diſtinction of boundaries. Carolſtadt is a place of ſome note, but Zagrab (already mentioned) is the capital of Croatia. All the ſovereignty exerciſed over them by the Auſtrians ſeems to conſiſt in the military arrangements for bringing them occaſionally into the field. A viceroy preſides over Croatia, jointly with Sclavonia, and

Hungarian DALMATIA: this lies in the upper part of the Adriatic ſea, and conſiſts of five diſtricts, in which the moſt remarkable places are the two following: Segna, which is a royal free town, fortified both by nature and art, and is ſituated near the ſea, in a bleak, mountainous and barren ſoil. The biſhop of this place is a ſuffragan to the archbiſhop of Spalatro. Here are twelve churches, and two convents. The governor reſides in the old palace, called the Royal Caſtle. 2. Ottoſchatz, a frontier fortification on the river Gatzka. That part of the fortreſs where the governor, and the greateſt part of the garriſon reſide, is ſurrounded with a

wall

POLAND.

from the best

AUTHORITIES.

References to the Palatinates.

1. *Pomerelia*	9. *Podlakia*	17. *Kalisz*	25. *Brzesc*
2. *Marienburg*	10. *Trocki*	18. *Brzesc*	26. *Russia*
3. *Culm*	11. *Wilno*	19. *Siradia*	27. *Russia*
4. *Poznan*	12. *Polock*	20. *Lenczyca*	28. *Wolhynia*
5. *Gnezna*	13. *Witepsk*	21. *Rawa*	29. *Kiow*
6. *Inoroclaw*	14. *Nowogrodek*	22. *Gracow*	30. *Padolia*
7. *Polock*	15. *Minsk*	23. *Sandomir*	31. *Braclaw*
8. *Mazovia*	16. *Mcislaw*	24. *Lublin*	

British Miles 69 ½ to a Degree.

Polish Miles 20 to a Degree.

Degrees of Longitude East from London.

28 30 32 34 36

56 54 52 50 48

R U S S I A

Pskow
Lada
Marienhausz
Lodz
Wolochowa
Pristen
Iaxenk
Sytno
Horodek
Drissa
Polock
Chudotin
Newel
Osmiała
Lomy
Goreczyslaw
Suraz
Witepsk
Ostrowo
Czetlice
Trubaka
Chatezi
Lemnica
Toloczyn
Orsza
Kopys
Hory
Mscislaw
Melatyre
Rasne
Mohilow
Bichow Nowy
Propoysk
Wielka
Horma
Gorki
Michyniec
Weliza
Dorogobuz
Woskresenkoe
Medynsk
Panino
Peemysl
Bielow
Rolchów
Orel
Wolodimirowka
Wolodimerow
Znikowo
Wydropusk
Storica
Twer
Wolga R.
Zawidowo
Mirzkowa
Arastazino
Trubczewsk
Sjewsk
Nowogrodek
Alexandrowka
Putiwi
Lubisse
Smolensko
Dniepr
Elnia
Tinjatnowa
Lake
Rezdonnoe
Lidy
Zagorja
Nemirowa
Cholm
Klud
Zarzkow
Jydoskie
Wolodarka
Moszna
Jeremowka
Horsun
Berezanka
Lisianka
Buki
Katnik
Bohuslaw
Spicynka
Elisa
Winnica
Mexrow
Grodeck
Kamieniec
Kopagrod
Kuluz
Bracław
Ladyczyn
Krupka
Berkad
Kazanin
Sipcatinow
Soroca
Dorohoi
Rybnice
Balti
Ustia
Olmaz
Owiopol
Constantinopolskaja
Alexandraskaja
Elizabethgorod
Archangelsk
Trypol
Kiow
Laszczyny
Chwastow
Mirapol
Ostrozek
Ostrozka
Zytomirsz
Korostyszow
Zwiahel
Rokitna
Iwanie
Lachowa
Olyka
Lubar
Orsza
Horwal
Volczyn
Petrikowo
Rzeczyca
Mikowce
Kamiadka
Pleszowa
Snowic
Homel
Bobrocz
Sergiewskaja
Trypol
Jerzy Alexjewska
Perewolocznа
Kremenczuk
Krukaw
Liwenskaja
Alexandrowka
Fedorowka
Chorizkoe
Marienkaja
Dnieper R.
Douchina
Schwezkaja
Cathannoslav
Krasnopol
Ludzizcz
Jeremowka
Horsun
Berezanka
Lisianka
Burki
Novomirgorod
Jentow
Alexandria
Petrowka
Bug R.
Black Sea
Bender
Cupriana
Roman
Jazy
Rybnica
Jampol
Wyrow
Zarazkow
Ladyczyn
Berka
Kazanin
Sawran

a wall and ſome towers: but the reſt of the buildings which are mean, are erected on piles in the water: ſo that one neighbour cannot viſit another without a boat.

Near Segna dwell the Uſcocs, a people, who, being galled by oppreſſion, eſcaped out of Dalmatia, from whence they obtained the name of Uſcocs, from the word Scoco, which ſignifies a *deſerter*. They are alſo called ſpringers, or leapers from the agility with which they leap, rather than walk, along this rugged and mountainous country. Some of them live in ſcattered houſes, and others in large villages. They are a rough, ſavage people, large bodied, courageous and given to rapine; but their viſible employment is grazing. They uſe the Wallachian language, and in their religious ſentiments and mode of worſhip approach neareſt to the Greek church; but ſome of them are Roman catholics.

A part of Wallachia belongs alſo to the emperor as well as to the Turks, which lies to the eaſt of Tranſylvania, and its principal towns are Tregohitz, Buchareſt, and Severin.

POLAND, INCLUDING LITHUANIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Degrees.
Length 700	}	between	} 16 and 34 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 680	}		} 46 and 57 north latitude.

Containing 160,800 ſquare miles, with 55 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] BEFORE the late extraordinary partition of this country, the kingdom of Poland, with the great duchy of Lithuania annexed (anciently called Sarmatia) was bounded on the North by Livonia, Muſcovy, and the Baltic ſea; on the Eaſt by Muſcovy; on the South by Hungary, Turkey, and Little Tartary; on the Weſt by Germany; and had the form of its government been as perfect as its ſituation was compact, it might have been one of the moſt powerful kingdoms in the univerſe. Its grand diviſions were,

	POLAND.	Len. Miles.	Bre. Miles.	CHIEF CITIES.
Proteſtants.	Courland, ſubject to Ruſſia.	174	80	Mittaw
	Lithuania,	333	310	Wilna — Great part of this diſtrict is now poſſeſſed by Ruſſia.
	Podolia,	360	120	Karſinleck
	Volhinia,	305	150	Lucco
	Great Poland,	208	180	Gneſna
	Red Ruſſia,	232	185	Lemburg — Now chiefly ſubject to
	Little Poland,	230	130	Cracow — Auſtria.
Papiſts.	Poleſia,	136	97	Breſſici
	Maſovia,	152	90	WARSAW — E. long. 21. 5. N. lat. 52. 15.
	Samogitia,	155	98	Raſiem
	Pruſſia Royal, or Poliſh Pruſſia,	118	104	Elbing — Now ſubject to Pruſſia.
	Polachia,	133	42	Bielh

Dantzic, Thorn and Elbing, in Pruſſia Royal, are ſtyled free cities, and were under the protection of Poland; the two laſt have been ſeized by the king of Pruſſia, and moſt of the privileges of the firſt.

NAME.] It is generally thought that Poland takes its name from Polu, or Pole, a Sclavonian word ſignifying a country fit for hunting, for which none was formerly more proper, on account of its plains, woods, wild beaſts, and game of every kind.

CLIMATE.] The air of Poland is ſuch as may be expected from ſo extenſive but level a climate. In the northern parts, it is cold, but healthy. The Carpathian mountains, which ſeparate Poland from Hungary, are covered with everlaſting ſnow, which has been known to fall in the midſt of ſummer. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Poland is temperate, and far from being ſo unſettled, either in winter or ſummer, as might be ſuppoſed from ſo northerly a ſituation; but the air is rather inſalubrious by reaſon of the numerous woods and moraſſes.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND WATERS.] Poland is in general a level country, and the ſoil is fertile in corn, as appears from the vaſt quantities that are ſent from thence down the Viſtula, to Dantzic, and which are bought up by the Dutch, and other nations. The paſtures of Poland, eſpecially in Podolia, are rich beyond expreſſion; and it is ſaid that one can hardly ſee the cattle that graze in the meadows. Here are mines of ſilver, copper, iron, ſalt, and coals; Lithuania abounds in iron, ochre, black agate, ſeveral ſpecies of copper and iron pyrites, and red and grey granite; falſe precious ſtones, and marine petrefactions. The interior parts of Poland contain foreſts, which furniſh timber in ſuch great quantities, that it is employed in houſe-building, inſtead of bricks, ſtones, and tiles. Various kinds of fruits and herbs, and ſome grapes, are produced in Poland, and are excellent when they meet with culture, but their wine ſeldom or never comes to perfection. Poland produces various kinds of clay fit for pipes and earthen ware. The water of many ſprings is boiled into ſalt. The virtues of a ſpring in the palatinate of Cracow, which increaſes and decreaſes with the moon, are ſaid to be wonderful for the preſervation of life; and it is reported, that the neighbouring inhabitants commonly live to 100, and ſome of them to 150 years of age. This ſpring is inflammable, and by applying a torch to it, it flames like the ſubtleſt ſpirit of wine. The flame, however dances on the ſurface, without heating the water; and if neglected to be extinguiſhed, which it may eaſily be, it communicates itſelf, by ſubterraneous conduits, to the roots of trees in a neighbouring wood, which it conſumes; and about 35 years ago the flames are ſaid to have laſted for three years before they could be entirely extinguiſhed.

RIVERS.] The chief rivers of Poland are, the Viſtula or Weyſel, the Neiſter, Neiper or Boriſthenes, the Bog, and the Dwina.

LAKES.] The chief of the few lakes contained in Poland, is Gopto, in the palatinate of Byzeſty; and Birals, or the White Lake, which is ſaid to dye thoſe who waſh in it of a ſwarthy complexion.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] The vegetable productions of Poland have been already mentioned under the article of SOIL, though ſome are peculiar to itſelf, particularly a kind of manna (if it can be called a vegetable) which in May and June the inhabitants ſweep into ſieves with the dew, and it ſerves for food dreſſed various ways. A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in Lithuania, in pieces as large as a man's fiſt, ſuppoſed to be the production of a reſinous pine.

The foreſts of Warſovia or Maſovia contain plenty of uri, or buffaloes, whoſe fleſh the Poles powder, and eſteem it an excellent diſh. Horſes, wolves, boars, the glutton, lynx, elks, and deer, all of them wild, are common in the Poliſh foreſts; and there is a ſpecies of wild horſes and aſſes,

and

and wild oxen, that the nobility of the Ukraine, as well as natives, are fond of. A kind of wolf, reſembling a hart, with ſpots on his belly and legs, is found here, and affords the beſt furs in the country; but the elk, which is common in Poland, as well as in ſome other northern countries, is a very extraordinary animal. The fleſh of the Poliſh elk forms the moſt delicious part of their greateſt feaſts. His body is of the deer make, but much thicker and longer; the legs high, the feet broad, like a wild goat's. Naturaliſts have obſerved, that upon diſſecting an elk, there was found in his head ſome large flies, with its brain almoſt eaten away; and it is an obſervation ſufficiently atteſted, that in the large woods and wilderneſſes of the north, this poor nimal is attacked, towards the winter chiefly, by a larger ſort of flies, that, through its ears attempt to take up their winter quarters in its head. This perſecution is thought to affect the elk with the falling ſickneſs, by which means it is taken, which would otherwiſe prove no eaſy matter.

Poland produces a creature called bohac: it reſembles a guinea-pig, but but ſeems to be of the beaver kind. They are noted for digging holes in the ground, which they enter in October, and do not come out, except occaſionally for food, till April: they have ſeparate apartments for their proviſions, lodgings, and their dead; they live together by 10 or 12 in a herd. We do not perceive that Poland contains any ſpecies of birds peculiar to itſelf; only we are told that the quails there have green legs, and their fleſh is reckoned to be unwholeſome. Lithuania is rich in ornithology; among the birds of prey are the eagle and vulture. The *remiz*, or little ſpecies of titmouſe, is frequently found in theſe parts, famous for the wondrous ſtructure of its pendent neſt, formed in the ſhape of a long purſe, with amazing art.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.

From what has been ſaid of the extent of Poland, it is impoſſible to form an eſtimate of the number of its inhabitants: they, undoubtedly, before the breaking out of the late war, were very numerous; but they are ſo little known, even at preſent, that numbers of them in remoter parts, continue ſtill to be Heathens, or have very imperfect notions of Chriſtianity. Some have ſuppoſed Poland and Lithuania to contain 14,000,000 of inhabitants: and when we conſider that the Poles have no colonies, and ſometimes have enjoyed peace for many years together, and that no fewer than 2,000,000 of Jews are ſaid to inhabit there, perhaps this calculation has not been exaggerated. But ſince the partition and diſmemberment of the kingdom, the number is only 9,000,000, of which 600,000 are Jews. The provinces taken by Ruſſia are the largeſt, by Auſtria the moſt populous, and by Pruſſia the moſt commercial. The Ruſſian contain 1,500,000; the Auſtrian 2,500,000; and the Pruſſian about 860,000; amounting to about 5,000,000, of ſouls ſeparated from their ancient kingdom.

The Poles, in their perſons, make a noble appearance; their complexion is fair, and their ſhapes are well proportioned. They are brave, honeſt, and hoſpitable; and their women ſprightly, yet modeſt, and ſubmiſſive to their huſbands. Their mode of ſalute, is to incline their heads, and to ſtrike their breaſts with one of their hands, while they ſtretch the other towards the ground; but when a common perſon meets a ſuperior, he bows his head near to the earth, and with his head touches the leg near to the heel of the perſon to whom he pays obeiſance. Their diverſions are warlike and manly; vaulting, dancing, and riding the great horſe, hunting, ſkaiting, bull and bear baiting. They uſually travel on horſeback; a Poliſh gentleman will not travel a ſtone's-throw without his horſe,

and they are ſo hardy, that they will ſleep upon the ground, without any bed or covering, in froſt and ſnow. The Poles never live above ſtairs, and their apartments are not united: the kitchen is on one ſide, the ſtable on another, the dwelling-houſe on the third, and the gate in the front. They content themſelves with a few ſmall beds, and if any lodge at their houſes, they muſt carry they bedding with them. When they ſit down to dinner or ſupper, they have their trumpets and other muſic playing, and a number of gentlemen to wait on them at table, all ſerving with the moſt profound reſpect; for the nobles who are poor, frequently find themſelves under the neceſſity of ſerving them that are rich; but their patron uſually treats them with civility, and permits the eldeſt to eat with him at his table, with his cap off; and every one of them has his peaſant boy to wait on him, maintained by the maſter of the family. At an entertainment, the Poles lay neither knives, forks, nor ſpoons, but every gueſt brings them with him; and they no ſooner ſit down to table, than tiian all the doors are ſhut, and not opened till the company return home. It is uſual for a nobleman to give his ſervant part of his meat, which he eats as he ſtands behind him, and to let him drink out of the ſame cup with himſelf; but this is the leſs extraordinary, if it be conſidered that theſe ſervants are eſteemed his equals. Bumpers are much in faſhion, both here and in Ruſſia; nor will they eaſily excuſe any perſon from pledging them. It would exceed the bounds of this work to deſcribe the grandeur and equipages of the Poliſh nobility; and the reader may figure to himſelf an idea of all that is faſtidious, ceremonious, expenſive, and ſhowy in life, to have any conception of their way of living. They carry the pomp of their attendance when they appear abroad, even to ridicule; for it is not unuſual to ſee the lady of a Poliſh grandee, beſides a coach and ſix, with a great number of ſervants, attended by an old gentleman uſher, an old gentlewoman for her governante, and a dwarf of each ſex to hold up their train; and if it be night, her coach is ſurrounded by a great number of flambeaux. The figure of their pomp, however, is proportioned to their eſtates; but each perſon goes as far as his income can afford.

The Poles are divided into nobles, clergy, citizens or burghers, and peaſants; the peaſants are divided into two ſorts: thoſe of the crown, and thoſe belonging to individuals. Though Poland has its princes, counts, and barons, yet the whole body of the nobility are naturally on a level, except the difference that ariſes from the public poſts they enjoy. Hence all who are of noble births call one another *brothers*. They do not value titles of honour, think a *gentleman of Poland* is the higheſt appellation they can enjoy. They have many conſiderable privileges; and, indeed, the boaſted Poliſh liberty is properly limited to them alone, partly, by the indulgence of former kings, but more generally from ancient cuſtom and preſcription. They have a power of life and death over their tenants and vaſſals, pay no taxes, are ſubject to none but the king, may chooſe whom they will for their king; and none but they, and the burghers of ſome particular towns, can purchaſe lands. In ſhort, they are almoſt entirely independent, enjoying many other privileges intirely incompatible with a well regulated ſtate; but if they engage in trade, they forfeit their nobility. Theſe great privileges make the Poliſh gentry powerful; many of them have large territories, with a deſpotic power over their tenants, whom they call their ſubjects, and transfer or aſſign over with the lands, cattle, and furniture. Until Caſimir the Great, the lord could put his peaſant to death with impunity, and when the latter had no children, conſidered himſelf as the heir, and ſeized all his effects. In 1347, Caſimir preſcribed a fine for the murder of a peaſant; and enacted, that, in caſe of his de-

ceaſe

ceaſe without iſſue, his next heir ſhould inherit. But theſe and other regulations have proved ineffectual againſt the power and tyranny of their nobles, and have been either abrogated or eluded. Some of them have eſtates from five to thirty leagues in extent, and are alſo hereditary ſovereigns of cities, with which the king has no concern. One of their nobles poſſeſſes above 4000 towns and villages. Some of them can raiſe 8 or 10,000 men. The houſe of a nobleman is a ſecure aſylum for perſons who have committed any crime; for none muſt preſume to take them from thence by force. They have their horſe and foot guards, which are upon duty day and night before their palaces and in their anti-chambers, and march before them when they go abroad. They make an extraordinary figure when they come to the diet, ſome of them having 5000 guards and attendants; and their debates in the ſenate are often determined by the ſword. When great men have ſuits at law, the diet, or other tribunals decide them; yet the execution of the ſentence muſt be left to the longeſt ſword; for the juſtice of the kingdom is commonly too weak for the grandees. Sometimes they raiſe 6000 men of a ſide, plunder and burn one another's cities, and beſiege caſtles and forts; for they think it below them to ſubmit to the ſentence of judges, without a field battle. If one lord kills the peaſant of another, he is not capitally convicted, but only obliged to make reparation, by another peaſant equal in value. A nobleman who is deſirous of cultivating a piece of land, builds a little wooden houſe, in which he ſettles a peaſant and his family, giving him a cow, two horſes, a certain number of geeſe, hens, &c. and as much corn as is ſufficient to maintain him the firſt year, and to improve for his own future ſubſiſtence and the advantage of his lord.

The clergy have many immunities; they are all free men, and in ſome inſtances, have their own courts of juſtice, in which the can on law is practiſed. A biſhop is entitled to all the privileges of a ſenator: wasuſually appointed by the king, and confirmed by the pope, but is now nominated by the king out of three canditates choſen by the permanent council. The archbiſhop of Gneſna is primate, the firſt ſenator in rank, and viceroy during an interregnum. The burghers ſtill enjoy ſome freedom and privileges; they chuſe their own burgomaſter and council, regulate their interior police, and have their own criminal courts of juſtice, and when defendant againſt a noble, he muſt be cited before the magiſtrate of his own town, from whence an appeal lies only to the king in his aſſeſſorial tribunal. Without this exemption from the juriſdiction of the nobles, they would long ſince have been reduced to a ſtate of vaſſalage.

The peaſants of the crown, if oppreſſed, may lodge a complaint in the royal court of juſtice, which is ſome check to injuſtice; but peaſants belonging to individuals are at the abſolute diſpoſal of their maſter, and all their acquiſitions ſerve only to enrich him. They are indiſpenſably obliged to cultivate the earth; they are incapable of entering upon any condition of life that might procure them freedom, without the permiſſion of their lords; and they are expoſed to the diſmal, and frequently fatal effects of the caprice, cruelty, and barbarity of their tyrannical maſters, who oppreſs them with impunity; and having the power of life and property in their hands, too often abuſe it in the moſt groſs and wanton manner, their wives and daughters being expoſed to the moſt brutal treatment. One bleſſing, however, attends the wretched ſituation of the Poliſh peaſants, which is their inſenſibility. Born ſlaves, and accuſtomed from their infancy to hardſhips and ſevere labour, the generality of them ſcarcely entertain an idea of better circumſtances and more liberty. They regard their maſters as a ſuperior order of beings, and hardly ever repine at their ſever

ſevere lot. Cheerful and contented with their condition, they are ready upon every occaſion to ſacrifice themſelves and their families for their maſter, eſpecially if the latter takes care to feed them well. Moſt of them ſeem to think that a man can never be very wretched while he has any thing to eat. There are ſome ſtyled German peaſants, whoſe anceſtors were indulged in ſettling in Poland, in the uſe of the German laws, who enjoy ſeveral privileges not poſſeſſed by the generality of the Poliſh peaſants: their villages are better built, they poſſeſs more cattle, pay their quit rents better, and are cleaner and neater in their perſons. I have been the more circumſtantial in deſcribing the manners and preſent ſtate of the Poles, as they bear a near reſemblance, in many particulars, to thoſe of Europe in general during the feudal ages; but their tyranny over their tenants and vaſſals ſeems to be carried to a much greater height. Lately, indeed, a few nobles of enlightened underſtanding, have ventured to give liberty to their vaſſals. The firſt who granted this freedom, was Zamoiſki, formerly great chancellor, who, in 1760, enfranchiſed ſix villages in the palatine of Maſovia, and afterwards on all his eſtates. The event has ſhowed the project to be no leſs judicious than humane; friendly to the noble's own intereſts as well as the happineſs of the peaſants, for it appears, that in the diſtricts in which the new arrangement hath been introduced, the population of the villages is conſiderably increaſed, and the revenues of their eſtates augmented in a triple proportion. Prince Staniſlaus, nephew of the king of Poland, hath very lately enfranchiſed four villages near Warſaw, and hath not only emancipated his peaſants from ſlavery, but condeſcends to direct their affairs. So that better times in that diſtreſſed country may be expected.

Torture was aboliſhed in Poland in 1770, by an edict of the diet, under the influence of the king. Atrocious crimes, ſuch as murder, &c. are puniſhed by beheading or hanging; leſſer delinquencies by whipping, impriſonment, and hard labour: the nobles never ſuffer any corporeal puniſhment, but are liable only to impriſonment and death.

The inns in this country are long ſtables built with boards and covered with ſtraw, without furniture or windows; there are chambers at one end; but none can lodge there, becauſe of flies and other vermin; ſo that ſtrangers generally chooſe rather to lodge among the horſes. Travellers are obliged to carry proviſion with them; and when foreigners want a ſupply, they apply to the lord of the village, who forthwith provides them with neceſſaries.

Dress.] The dreſs of the Poles is pretty ſingular. They ſhave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown, and men of all ranks generally wear large whiſkers. They wear a veſt which reaches down to the middle of the leg, and a kind of gown over it lined with fur, and girded with a ſaſh, but the ſleeves fit as cloſe to their arms as a waiſtcoat. Their breeches are wide, and make but one piece with their ſtockings. They wear a fur cap or bonnet; their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtbands, and they wear neither ſtock nor neckcloth. Inſtead of ſhoes, they wear Turkey leather boats, with thin ſoles, and deep iron heels bent like a half moon. They carry a pole-ax, and a ſabre, or cutlaſs, by their ſides. When they appear on horſeback, they wear over all a ſhort cloak, which is commonly covered with furs both within and without. The people of the beſt quality wear ſables, and others the ſkins of the tygers, leopards, &c. Some of them have fifty ſuits of clothes, all as rich as poſſible, and which deſcend from father to ſon. Were it not for our own partiality to ſhort dreſſes, we muſt acknowledge that of the poles to be pictureſque and majeſtic. Charles II, of England, thought of introducing the Poliſh dreſs into

his

his court, and after his reſtoration wore it for two years, chiefly for the encouragement of the Engliſh broad cloth; but diſcontinued it through his connections with the French.

The habit of the women comes very near to that of the men; a ſimple Polonaiſe, or long robe edged with fur; but ſome people of faſhion, of both ſexes, affect the French or Engliſh modes. As to the peaſants, in winter they wear a ſheep's-ſkin with the wool inwards, and in ſummer a thick coarſe cloth; but as to linen, they wear none. Their boots are the rinds of trees wrapped about their legs, with the thicker parts to guard the ſole of their feet. The women have a watchful eye over their daughters, and in the diſtrict of Samogitia particularly, make them wear little bells, before and behind, to give notice where they are, and what they are doing.

RELIGION.] The number of Proteſtants, conſiſting of Lutherans and Calviniſts, in the republic of Poland, is very conſiderable; and when theſe are joined to the Greek-church, the whole are called DISSIDENTS. At the ſame time, the Poliſh nobility and the bulk of the nation, are tenacious of the Roman catholic religion. The treaty of Oliva, concluded in 1660, tolerated the diſſidents, and was guarantied by the principal powers in Europe; but was ſo diſregarded by the Poles, that, in the year 1724, they made a public maſſacre of the Proteſtants at Thorn. Numerous proviſions were made for the protection of the Proteſtants, who were perſecuted, when Jews, Turks, and infidels of every kind, have been tolerated and encouraged. The monaſteries in Poland are by ſome writers ſaid to be 576, and the nunneries 117, beſides 246 ſeminaries or colleges, and 31 abbeys. The clergy are poſſeſſed of a very large proportion of the lands and revenues of the kingdom, but in general, are illiterate bigots, and the monks are ſome of the moſt profligate of mankind, without apprehending any diſgrace to their order, or dreading the cenſure of their ſuperiors, who require equal indulgence. Vaſt ſway the popiſh clergy have had in Poland at different periods, notwithſtanding the treaties and capitulations which have been made in favour of the proteſtants and the members of the Greek church. Indeed, it has been chiefly owing to the influence and conduct of the popiſh clergy, that the peaſants in Poland have been reduced to ſuch a ſtate of wretched ſlavery.

The principles of Socianiſm made a very early and conſiderable progreſs in Poland. A tranſlation of the Bible into the Poliſh language was publiſhed in 1572; and two years after, under the direction of the ſame perſons, the catechiſm, or confeſſion, of the Unitarians, was publiſhed at Cracow. The abilities and writings of Socinus greatly contributed to the extenſive propagation of his opinions; but though the Socinians in Poland have been very numerous, they have at different times been greatly perſecuted. However, it was lately reſolved between the republic and partitioning powers, that all diſſidents ſhould henceforth enjoy the free exerciſe of their religion, though to continue excluded from the diet, the ſenate, and the permanent council. They are to have churches, but without bells; alſo ſchools and ſeminaries of their own; they are capable of ſitting in the inferior courts of juſtice, and three of their communion are admitted as aſſeſſors in the tribunal to receive appeals in religion.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] Poland contains two archbiſhoprics; Gneſna and Lemburg. The archbiſhop of Gneſna, beſides being primate, and during an inter-reign prince regent of the kingdom, is always a cardinal. The other biſhops, particularly of Cracow, enjoy great privileges and immunities.

LANGUAGE.] The Poliſh Language is a dialect of Sclavonic, and is both harſh and unharmonious, on account of the vaſt number of conſo-

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nants it employs, ſome of their words having no vowels at all. The Lithuanians and Livonians have a language full of corrupted Latin words; but the Ruſſian and German tongues are underſtood in the provinces bordering on thoſe countries.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though Copernicus, the great reſtorer of the true aſtronomical ſyſtem, Voſſius, and ſome other learned men, were natives of Poland, yet its ſoil is far from being favourable to learning. Latin is ſpoken, though incorrectly, by the common people in ſome provinces. But the contempt which the nobility, who place their chief importance in the privileges of their rank, have ever ſhewn for learning; the ſervitude of the lower people, and the univerſal ſuperſtition among all ranks of men, theſe circumſtances have wonderfully retarded, and, notwithſtanding the liberal efforts of his preſent majeſty, ſtill continue to retard the progreſs of letters in this kingdom. However, of late, a taſte for ſcience has ſpread itſelf among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accompliſhment.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſities of Poland are thoſe of Cracow, Wilna, and Poſna or Poſen. The firſt conſiſts of eleven colleges, and has the ſuperviſorſhip of 14 grammar-ſchools diſperſed through the city. The number of ſtudents in 1778, amounted to 600. Wilna was under the ſuperintendance of the Jeſuits, but ſince their ſuppreſſion the king hath eſtabliſhed a committee of education, who appoint profeſſors, and direct their ſalaries and ſtudies: that of Poſna was rather a Jeſuits college than an univerſity.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The frequent incurſions of the Tartars, and other barbarous nations, into Poland, probably forced the women ſometimes to leave their children expoſed in the woods, where we muſt ſuppoſe they were nurſed by bears and other wild beaſts, otherwiſe it is difficult to account for their ſubſiſtence. It is certain that ſuch beings have been found in the woods both of Poland and Germany, diveſted of almoſt all the properties of humanity but the form. When taken, they generally went on all fours; but it is ſaid that ſome of them have, by proper management, attained to the uſe of ſpeech.

The ſalt mines of Poland conſiſt of wonderful caverns, ſeveral hundred yards deep, at the bottom of which are many intricate windings and labyrinths. Out of theſe are dug four different kind of ſalts; one extremely hard, like cryſtal; another ſofter, but clearer; a third white, but brittle; theſe are all brackiſh, but the fourth is ſomewhat freſher. Theſe four kinds are dug in different mines, near the city of Cracow; on one ſide of them is a ſtream of ſalt water, and on the other, one of freſh. The revenue ariſing from thoſe, and other ſalt mines, is very conſiderable, and formed part of the royal revenue, before ſeized by Auſtria: the annual average profit of thoſe of Wiolitzka, eight miles from Cracow, about 98,000l. ſterling. Out of ſome mines at Iſza, about 70 miles north-eaſt of Cracow, are dug ſeveral kinds of earth, which are excellently adapted to the potter's uſe, and ſupply all Poland with earthen ware. Under the mountains adjoining to Kiow, in the deſerts of Podolia, are ſeveral grottos, where a great number of human bodies are preſerved, though buried a vaſt number of years ſince, being neither ſo hard nor ſo black as the Egyptian mummies. Among them are two princes, in the habits they uſed to wear. It is thought that this preſerving quality is owing to the nature of the ſoil, which is dry and ſandy. Poland can boaſt of few antiquities, as old Sarmatia was never perfectly known to the Romans themſelves. Its artificial rarities are but few, the chief being the gold, ſilver, and enamelled veſſels preſented by the kings and prelates of Poland, and preſerved in the cathedral of Gneſna.

CITIES,

CITIES, TOWNS, FORTS, AND OTHER EDIFICES, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

Warſaw lies on the Viſtula, and almoſt in the centre of Poland. It is the royal reſidence: and contains many magnificent palaces and other buildings, beſides churches and convents. It is ſaid to contain near 70,000 inhabitants, but a great number are foreigners. The ſtreets are ſpacious but ill paved, and the greateſt part of the houſes, particularly in the ſuburbs, are mean wooden hovels. The city exhibits a ſtrong contraſt of wealth and poverty, as doth every part of this unhappy country. It has little or no commerce. The ſame may be ſaid of Cracow, which is the capital (though that honour is diſputed by Warſaw); for we are told, that notwithſtanding it lies in the neigbourhood of the rich ſalt-mines, and is ſaid to contain fifty churches and convents, its commerce is inconſiderable. The city ſtands in an extenſive plain watered by the Viſtula, and with the ſuburbs occupy a vaſt ſpace of ground, but all together ſcarcely contain 16,000 ſouls. It is ſurrounded with high brick walls, ſtrengthened with round and ſquare towers in the ancient ſtyle of fortification, and is garriſoned with 600 Ruſſians. Grodno though not the capital is the principal town in Lithuania, but a large and ſtraggling place, containing ruined palaces, falling houſes, and wretched hovels, with about 7000 inhabitants; 1000 of which are Jews, and 3000 are employed in new manufactures of cloths camlets, linen, cotten, ſilk, ſtuffs, &c. eſtabliſhed there by the king in 1776. He hath alſo eſtabliſhed in this place, an academy of phyſic for Lithuania, in which ten ſtudents are inſtructed for phyſic, and twenty for ſurgery, all taught and maintained at his own expence.

Dantzic is the capital of Poliſh Pruſſia, and is famous in hiſtory on many accounts, particularly that of its being formerly at the head of the Hanſeatic aſſociation, commonly called the Hanſe-towns. It is ſituated on the Viſtula, near five miles from the Baltic, and is a large, beautiful, populous city: its houſes generally are five ſtories high; and many of its ſtreets are planted with cheſnut-trees. It has a fine harbour, and is ſtill a moſt eminent commercial city, although it ſeems to be ſomewhat paſt its meridian glory, which was probably about the time that the preſident de Thou wrote his much eſteemed *Hiſtoria ſui Temporis*, wherein, under the year 1597, he ſo highly celebrates its commerce and grandeur. It is a republic, containing a ſmall adjacent territory about forty miles round it, which were under the protection of the king and the republic of Poland. Its magiſtracy, and the majority of its inhabitants, are Lutherans; although the Romaniſts and Calviniſts be equally tolerated in it. It is rich, and has 26 pariſhes, with many convents and hoſpitals. The inhabitants have been computed to amount to 200,000; but latter computations fall very conſiderably ſhort of it; as appears by its annual bill of mortality, exhibited by Dr. Buſching, who tells us that in the year 1752, there died but 1846 perſons. Its own ſhipping is numerous; but the foreign ſhips conſtantly reſorting to it are more ſo, whereof 1014 arrived there in the year 1752; in which year alſo 1288 Poliſh veſſels came down the Viſtula, chiefly laden with corn, for its matchleſs granaries; from whence that grain is diſtributed to many foreign nations; beſides which, Dantzic exports great quantities of naval ſtores, and vaſt variety of other articles. Dr. Buſching affirms, that it appears from ancient records, as early as the year 997, that Dantzic was a large commercial city, and not a village or inconſiderable town, as ſome pretend.

The inhabitants of Dantzic have often changed their maſters, and have ſometimes been under the protection of the Engliſh and Dutch; but generally have ſhewn a great prelidiction for the kingdom and republic of Poland, as being leſs likely to rival them in their trade or abridge them of their immunities, which reach even to the privilege of coining money.

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Though ſtrongly fortified, and poſſeſſed of 150 large braſs cannon, it could not, through its ſituation, ſtand a regular ſiege, being ſurrounded with eminences. In 1734, the inhabitants diſcovered a remarkable attachment and fidelity towards Staniſlaus, king of Poland, not only when his enemies, the Ruſſians, were at their gates, but even in poſſeſſion of the city. The reaſon why Dantzic, Thorne, and Elbing, have enjoyed privileges, both civil and religious, very different from thoſe of the reſt of Poland, is becauſe not being able to endure the tyranny of the Teutonic knights, they put themſelves under the protection of Poland, reſerving to themſelves large and ample privileges. This city, as well as that of Thorne, were exempted by the king of Pruſſia from thoſe claims which he lately made on the neighbouring countries; notwithſtanding which, he ſoon after thought proper to ſeize on the territories belonging to Dantzic, under pretence of their having been formerly part of Poliſh Pruſſia. He then proceeded to poſſeſs himſelf of the port-duties belonging to that city, and erected a cuſtom-houſe in the harbour, where he laid arbitrary and inſupportable duties upon goods exported or imported. To complete the ſyſtem of oppreſſion, cuſtom-houſes were erected at the very gates of Dantzic, ſo that no perſon could go in or out of the town without being ſearched in the ſtricteſt manner. Such is the treatment which the city of Dantzic received from the king of Pruſſia, though few cities have ever exiſted, which have been comprehended in ſo many general and particular treaties, and whoſe rights and liberties have been ſo frequently ſecured, and guarantied by ſo many great powers, and by ſuch a long and regular ſucceſſion of public acts, as that of Dantzic has been. In the year 1784, it was blockaded by his troops, on various pretences: by the interpoſition of the empreſs of Ruſſia, and of the king of Poland, they were withdrawn, and a negotiation carried on by deputies at Warſaw; which was concluded on the 7th of September; by which, as now acceded to by the citizens, the place and trade of the city are to be reſtored to its former ſtability. The city of Thorne was alſo treated by the king of Pruſſia in the ſame unjuſt and oppreſſive manner with that of Dantzic, and is now added to his dominions.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The chief exports of Poland are all ſpecies of grain, hemp, flax, cattle, maſts, planks, pitch and tar, honey, wax, potaſh and tallow: its imports are foreign wines, cloths, ſtuffs, manufactured ſilks and cotton, fine linen, hardware, tin, copper, ſilver and gold, glaſs ware, furs, &c. Some linen and woollen cloths, ſilks, ſtuffs, camlets, lace, and hardwares. are manufactured in the interior parts of Poland and Lithuania, but commerce is chiefly confined to the city of Dantzic and the other towns on the Viſtula and the Baltic.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Whole volumes have been written upon this ſubject. It differs little from ariſtocracy: hence Poland hath been called a kingdom and commonwealth. The king is the head of the republic, and is elected by the nobility and the clergy in the plains of Warſaw. They elect him on horſeback; and in caſe there ſhould be a refractory minority, the majority has no control over them, but to cut them in pieces with their ſabres; but if the minority are ſufficiently ſtrong, a civil war enſues. Immediately after his election, he ſigns the *pacta conventa* of the kingdom, by which he engages that the crown ſhall be elective, that his ſucceſſors ſhall be appointed during his life—that the diets ſhall be aſſembled every two years—that every noble or gentleman in the realm ſhall have a vote in the diet of election, and that in caſe the king ſhould infringe the laws and privileges of the nation, his ſubjects ſhould be abſolved from their allegiance.—In fact, the king was no more than preſident of the ſenate, which uſed to be compoſed of the primate, archbiſhop of Lemburg, fifteen biſhops, and 130 laymen, conſiſting of the great

officers

officers of ſtate, the palatines, and caſtellans. The palatines, are the governors of the provinces, who hold their offices for life.—The caſtellans' office in time of peace is almoſt nominal, but when the military or feudal ſervices are required, they are the lieutenants of the palatines, and command the troops of their ſeveral diſtricts.

The diets of Poland are ordinary and extraordinary: the former meet once in two and ſometimes three years; the latter is ſummoned by the king, upon critical emergencies, and continue no longer than a fortnight; but one diſſenting voice renders all their deliberations ineffectual. Previous to a general diet, either ordinary or extraordinary, which can ſit but ſix weeks, there are dietines, or provincial diets, held in different diſtricts. The king, with the advice of the permanent council, ſends them letters containing the heads of the buſineſs that is to be treated of in the general diet. The gentry of each palatinate may ſit in the dietine, and chooſe nuncios or deputies, to carry their reſolutions to the grand diet. The great diet conſiſts of the king, ſenators, and deputies from provinces and towns, viz. 178 for Poland and Lithuania, and 70 for Pruſſia: it met twice at Warſaw and one at Grodno, by turns, for the conveniency of the Lithuanians, who made it one of the articles of their union with Poland; but ſince the preſent reign, they have been always ſummoned to Warſaw. The king formerly nominated the great officers of ſtate and to other places, but by the new conſtitution, for the election of ſenators, as biſhops, palatines, caſtellans, and miniſters, the permanent council nominates by ballot, three candidates, one of whom the king muſt appoint—the ſame reſpecting the commiſſioners of war, and of the treaſury, &c. &c. The king was alſo forced to renounce the right of diſpoſing of any of the royal demeſnes and ſtaroſties. When the king is abſent from Poland, or dead, his place is ſupplied by the archbiſhop of Gneſna, as viceroy, and if that ſee is vacant, by the biſhop of Ploſco. The ten great officers of ſtate in Poland, who are ſenators, are the two great marſhals, one of Poland, the other of Lithuania, the two chancellors, the two vice-chancellors the two treaſurers, and the two ſub-marſhals.

Such are the outlines of this motly conſtitution, which was new modelled with almoſt every new king, according to the *pacta conventa* he is obliged to ſign. There hath been lately a total diſſolution of all order in Poland, through the influence of ſome of the neighbouring powers, intereſted to foment anarchy and confuſion in the Poliſh councils; and many of the firſt nobility do not bluſh to receive penſions from foreign courts. However, in this imperfect ſketch, we can diſcern the great outlines of a noble and free government. The precautions taken to limit the king's power and yet inveſt him with an ample prerogative, were worthy a wiſe people. The inſtitution of the diet and dietines are favourable to public liberty, as are many other proviſions in the republic; but it laboured, even in its beſt ſtate, under incurable diſorders. The exerciſe of the *veto*, or the tribunal negative, that is veſted in every deputy or nuncio, excluſive of the king and ſenate, at a diet, muſt always be deſtructive of order and government. It is founded upon Gothic principles, and that unlimited juriſdiction which the great lords in former ages uſed to enjoy all over Europe. According to Mr. Coxe, the privilege in queſtion is not to be found in any period of the Poliſh hiſtory, antecedent to the reign of John Caſimir. It was under his adminiſtration that, in the year 1652, when the diet of Warſaw was debating upon tranſactions of the utmoſt importance, which required a ſpeedy determination, that Sicinſki, nuncio of Upita in Lithuania, cried out, "I ſtop the proceedings." Having uttered theſe words, he quitted the aſſembly, and, repairing immediately to the chancellor, proteſted, that as many acts had been propoſed and carried

contrary

contrary to the conſtitution of the republic, if the diet continued to ſit, he ſhould conſider it as an infringement of the laws. The members were thunderſtruck at a proteſt of this nature, hitherto unknown. Warm debates took place about the propriety of continuing or diſſolving the diet: at length, the venal and diſcontented faction, who ſupported the proteſt, obtained the majority; and the aſſembly broke up in great confuſion. The want of ſubordination in the executive parts of the conſtitution, and the rendering noblemen independent and unaccountable for their conduct, is a blemiſh impracticable to remove. After all, when we examine the beſt accounts of the preſent conſtitution of Poland, and compare them with the ancient hiſtory of Great Britain, and other European kingdoms, we may perceive a wonderful ſimilarity between what theſe were formerly, and what Poland is at preſent. This naturally leads us to infer, that the government of Poland cannot be otherwiſe improved than by the introduction of arts, manufactures, and commerce, which would render the common people independent of the nobility, and prevent the latter from having it in their power to annoy their ſovereign, and to maintain thoſe unequal privileges which are ſo hurtful to the community.

Indeed the partitioning powers, beſide diſmembering the beſt provinces of Poland, proceeded to change and fix the conſtitution and government, under pretence of amending it; confirming all its defects, and endeavouring to perpetuate the principles of anarchy and confuſion. The executive power, which was entruſted to the king and ſenate, is now veſted in the permanent council, compoſed of the king, ſenate, and the equeſtrian order. The king as preſident, the primate and three biſhops, nine lay ſenators, four from the miniſtry of the republic, the marſhal with 17 counſellors of the equeſtrian order, in all 36. Of the 18 ſenators, ſix from each province of Great Poland, Little Poland, and Lithuania. They inſiſted upon four cardinal laws to be ratified, which was at laſt obtained. By the *firſt*, "that the crown of Poland ſhall be for ever elective, and all order of ſucceſſion proſcribed;" thus the excluſion of a king's ſon and grandſon, removes the proſpect of an hereditary ſovereignty, and entails upon the kingdom all the evils inſeparable from an elective monarchy. By the *ſecond*, "that foreign candidates to the throne ſhall be excluded, and no perſon can be choſen king of Poland, excepting a native Pole of noble origin, and poſſeſſing land in the kingdom:" the houſe of Saxony, and all foreign princes who might be likely to give weight to Poland by their hereditary dominions, and reſtore its provinces and liberties, are ſet aſide. By the *third*, "the government of Poland ſhall be for ever free, independent, and of a republican form;" the *liberum veto*, and all the exorbitant privileges of the equeſtrian order, are confirmed in their utmoſt latitude. And by the *fourth*, "a permanent council ſhall be eſtabliſhed, in which the executive power ſhall be veſted; and in this council the equeſtrian order, hitherto excluded from the adminiſtration of affairs in the interval of diets, ſhall be admitted:" ſo that the prerogatives of the crown are ſtill farther diminiſhed; but this change of the conſtitution was intended by the partitioning powers to ſerve their own purpoſes, and give a large ſcope to influence and faction over that part of the kingdom they had not ſeized.

REVENUES.] Though the king of Poland is limited in the political exerciſe of his prerogative, yet his revenue is ſufficient to maintain him and his houſehold with great ſplendor, as he pays no troops or officers of ſtate, nor even his body guards. The preſent king had 1,000,000 and a half of florins ſettled upon him by the commiſſion of ſtate; and the income of his predeceſſors generally amounted to 140,000l. ſterling. The public revenues aroſe chiefly from the crown-lands, the ſalt-mines in the

palatinate

palatinate of Cracow, now in Auſtrian Poland, which alone amounted to nearly 100,000l. ſterling; ancient tolls and cuſtoms, particularly thoſe of Elbing and Dantzic, the rents of Marienburg, Dirſhau, and Rogenhus, and of the government of Cracow and diſtrict of Niepoliomiez.

Weſtern Ruſſia was the greateſt loſs to Poland, as by the diſmemberment of that Province, the navigation of the Viſtula depends entirely upon the king of Pruſſia. This was a fatal blow to the trade of Poland, for Pruſſia has laid ſuch heavy duties on the merchandiſe paſſing to Dantzick, as greatly to diminiſh the trade of that town, and to transfer a conſiderable part of it to Memel and Konigſburgh.

	£. ſterl.
By the diſmemberment, Poland loſt near half her annual income. To ſupply this deficiency, it became neceſſary to new-model and increaſe the taxes.	
In 1775, all the impoſts amounted to - -	323,012 0 0
The net revenue of the king is - - -	194,500 0 0
Out of which he only pays his houſehold expences and menial ſervants. It ariſes from his royal demeſnes, ſtaroſties, and 74,074l. out of the treaſury.	
Whole revenue - - - -	443,938 0 0
Deduct the king's revenue for privy purſe -	194,500 0 0
For army, ſtate officers, and all other charges -	249,438 0 0

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The innate pride of the Poliſh nobility is ſuch, that they always appear in the field on horſeback; and it is ſaid that Poland can raiſe with eaſe 100,000 and Lithuania 70,000 cavalry, but it muſt be underſtood that ſervants are included. As to their infantry, they are generally hired from Germany, but are ſoon diſmiſſed, becauſe they muſt be maintained by extraordinary taxes, of which the Poliſh grandees are by no means fond. As to the ordinary army of the Poles, it conſiſted, in 1778, of 12,310 men in Poland, and 7,465 in Lithuania, cantoned into crown-lands. The empreſs of Ruſſia maintains in the country 10,000 ſoldiers and every garriſon is compoſed of Ruſſians and natives: 1000 of the former are ſtationed at Warſaw. Theſe hold the nobles in ſubjection, and the king himſelf is little more than a viceroy, while the Ruſſian ambaſſador regulates the affairs of the kingdom under the direction of his court. The poſpolite conſiſts of all the nobility of the kingdom and their followers, excepting the chancellor, and the ſtaroſts of frontier places; and they may be called by the king into the field upon extraordinary occaſions; but he cannot keep them above ſix weeks in arms, neither are they obliged to march above three leagues out of the kingdom.

The Poliſh huſſars are the fineſt and moſt ſhewy body of cavalry in Europe; next to them are the panceras; and both thoſe bodies wear defenſive armour of coats of mail and iron caps. The reſt of their cavalry are armed with muſkets and heavy ſcymetars. After all that has been ſaid the Poliſh cavalry are extremely inefficient in the field; for though the men are brave, and their horſes excellent, they are ſtrangers to all diſcipline; and when drawn out, notwithſtanding all the authority of their crown-general, their other officers, and even the king himſelf, have over them, they are oppreſſive and deſtructive to the court. It is certain, notwithſtanding, that the Poles may be rendered excellent troops by diſcipline, and that on various occaſions, particularly under John Sobieſki, they made as great a figure in arms as any people in Europe, and proved the bulwark of Chriſtendom

tendom againſt the infidels. It did not ſuit the Saxon princes who ſucceeded that hero, to encourage a martial ſpirit in the Poles, whom they perpetually overawed with their electoral troops; nor indeed to introduce any reformation among them, either civil or military; the effects of which conduct have been ſince ſeverely felt in that country.

ORDERS.] The "order of the *White Eagle*" was firſt inſtituted by Uladiſlaus in the year 1325, but revived by Auguſtus I, in the year 1705, to attach to him ſome of the Poliſh nobles who he feared were inclined to Staniſlaus, his competitor: it was conferred alſo on the czar Peter the Great, of Ruſſia. The preſent king inſtituted the "order of *St. Staniſlaus*," ſoon after his election to the crown in 1765. The badge is a gold croſs enamelled red, and on the centre of it is a medallion with the image of St. Staniſlaus, enamelled in proper colours. It is worn pendent to a red riband edged with white. The ſtar of the order is ſilver, and in the centre, is a cypher of S. A. R. (Staniſlaus Auguſtus Rex,) encircled with the motto "*Premiando incitat.*"

HISTORY.] Poland, of old, was poſſeſſed by the Vandals, who were afterwards partly expelled by the Ruſs and Tartars. It was divided into many ſmall ſtates or principalities, each almoſt independent of another, though they generally had ſome prince who was paramount over the reſt. In the year 700, the people, through the oppreſſion of their petty chiefs, gave the ſupreme command, under the title of duke, to Cracus, the founder of the city of Cracow. His poſterity failing, in the year 830, a peaſant, one Piaſtus, was elected to the ducal dignity. He lived to the age of 120 years, and his reign was ſo long and auſpicious, that every native Pole who has ſince been elected king, is called a Piaſt. From this period, till the acceſſion of Miciſlaus II, 964, we have no very certain records of the hiſtory of Poland. The title of duke was retained, till the year 999, when Boleſlaus aſſumed the title of king, and conquered Moravia, Pruſſia, and Bohemia, making them tributary to Poland. Boleſlaus II added Red Ruſſia to Poland, by marrying the heireſs of that duchy, anno 1059. Jagello, who, in 1384, mounted the throne, was grand duke of Lithuania, and a pagan; but on his being elected king of Poland, he not only became a Chriſtian, but was at pains to bring over his ſubjects to that religion. He united his hereditary dominions to thoſe of Poland, which gave ſuch influence to his poſterity over the hearts of Poles, that the crown was preſerved in his family until the male line became extinct in Sigiſmund Auguſtus, in 1572: who indulged the reformed, with the Greeks and all other ſects, to a ſeat in the diet, and to all the honours and privileges before confined to the catholics. He gave ſuch evident marks of favour to the proteſtant confeſſion, that he was ſuſpected of being inclined to change his religion. At this time two powerful competitors appeared for the crown of Poland. Theſe were, Henry duke of Anjou, brother to Charles IX, king of France, and Maximilian of Auſtria. The French intereſt prevailed, by private bribes to the nobles, and a ſtipulation to pay an annual penſion to the republic from the revenues of France; but Henry had not been four months on the throne of Poland, when his brother died, and he returned privately to France, which kingdom he governed by the name of Henry III. The party who had eſpouſed Maximilian's intereſt endeavoured once more to revive his pretenſions; but the majority of the Poles being deſirous to chooſe a prince who might reſide among them, made choice of Stephen Batori, prince of Tranſylvania, who, in the beginning of his reign, meeting with ſome oppoſition from the Auſtrian faction, took the wiſeſt method to eſtabliſh himſelf on the throne, by marrying Anne, the ſiſter of Sigiſmund Auguſtus, and of the royal houſe of the Jagellons. Stephen produced a great change in the military affairs of the Poles,

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by eſtabliſhing a new militia compoſed of Coſſacs, a rough and barbarous race of men, on whom he beſtowed the Ukraine, or frontiers of his kingdom. Upon his death, in 1586, the Poles choſe Sigiſmund, ſon of John, king of Sweden, by Catharine, ſiſter of Sigiſmund II, for their king.

Sigiſmund was crowned king of Sweden after his father's death; but being expelled, as we have ſeen in the hiſtory of Sweden, by the Swedes, a long war enſued between them and the Poles, but terminated in favour of the latter. Sigiſmund being ſecured in the throne of Poland, aſpired to that of Ruſſia as well as Sweden; but after long wars, he was defeated in both views. He was afterwards engaged in a variety of unſucceſsful wars with the Turks and Swedes. At laſt a truce was concluded under the mediation of France and England: but the Poles were forced to agree, that the Swedes ſhould keep Elbing, Memel, Braniſberg, and Pillau, together with all they had taken in Livonia. In 1623, Sigiſmund died; and Uladiſlaus, his ſon, ſucceeded. This prince was ſucceſsful both againſt the Turks and the Ruſſians, and obliged the Swedes to reſtore all the Poliſh dominions they had taken in Pruſſia. His reign, however, was unfortunate, by his being inſtigated, through the avarice of his great men, to encroach upon the privileges of the Coſſacs in the Ukraine. As the war which followed, was carried on againſt the Coſſacs upon ambitious and perfidious principles, the Coſſacs, naturally a brave people, became deſperate; and on the ſucceſſion of John II, brother to Uladiſlaus, the Coſſac general Schmielinſki defeated the Poles in two great battles, and forced them to a diſhonourable peace. It appears that, during the courſe of this war, the Poliſh nobility behaved as the worſt of ruffians, and their conduct was highly condemned by John: while his nobility diſapproved of the peace he had concluded with them. As the jealouſy hereby occaſioned continued, the Ruſſians came to a rupture with the Poles; and being joined by many of the Coſſacs, they, in 1654, took Smolenſko. This was followed with the taking of Wilna, and other places; and they committed moſt horrid ravages in Lithuania. Next year Charles X, of Sweden, after over-running Great and Little Poland, entered into Poliſh Pruſſia, all the towns of which received him, except Dantzic. The reſiſtance made by that city gave the Poles time to re-aſſemble, and their king, John Caſimir, who had fled into Sileſia, was joined by the Tartars as well as the Poles: ſo that the Swedes, who were diſperſed through the country, were every where cut in pieces. The Lithuanians, at the ſame time, diſowned the allegiance they had been forced to pay to Charles, who returned to Sweden with no more than a handful of his army. It was during this expedition, that the Dutch and Engliſh protected Dantzic, and the elector of Brandenburgh acquired the ſovereignty of Ducal Pruſſia, which had ſubmitted to Charles. Thus the latter loſt Poland, of which he had made an almoſt complete conqueſt. The treaty of Oliva was begun after the Swedes had been driven out of Cracow and Thorn, by which Royal Pruſſia was reſtored to the Poles. They were, however, forced to quit all pretenſions to Livonia, and to cede Smolenſko, Kiow, and the duchy of Siveria, to the Ruſſians.

During thoſe tranſactions, the Poliſh nobility grew very uneaſy with their king. Some of them were diſſatisfied with the conceſſions he had made to the Coſſacs, many of whom had thrown off the Poliſh yoke; others taxed him with want of capacity; and ſome, with an intention to rule by a mercenary army of Germans. Caſimir, who very poſſibly had no ſuch intentions, and was fond of retirement and ſtudy, finding that cabals and factions increaſed every day, and that he himſelf might fall a ſacrifice to the public diſcontent, abdicated his throne, and died abbot of

St. Germains in France, employing the remainder of his days in Latin poetical compoſitions, which are far from being deſpicable.

The moſt remote deſcendants of the ancient king ending in John Caſimir, many foreign candidates preſented themſelves for the crown of Poland; but the Poles choſe for their king a private gentleman, of little intereſt, and leſs capacity, one Michael Wieſnowiſki, becauſe he was deſcended from a Piaſt. His reign was diſgraceful to Poland. Large bodies of the Coſſacs had put themſelves under the protection of the Turks, who conquered all the provinces of Podolia, and took Kaminieck, till then thought impregnable. The greateſt part of Poland was then ravaged, and the Poles were obliged to pay an annual tribute to the ſultan. Notwithſtanding thoſe diſgraceful events, the credit of the Poliſh arms was in ſome meaſure maintained by John Sobieſki, the crown-general, a brave and active commander, who had given the Turks ſeveral defeats. Michael dying in 1673, Sobieſki was choſen king; and in 1676, he was ſo ſucceſsful againſt the infidels, that he forced them to remit the tribute they had impoſed upon Poland; but they kept poſſeſſion of Kaminieck. In 1683, Sobieſki, though he had not been well treated by the houſe of Auſtria, was ſo public ſpirited, as to enter into the league that was formed for the defence of Chriſtendom againſt the infidels, and acquired immortal honour, by obliging the Turks to raiſe the ſiege of Vienna, and making a terrible ſlaughter of the enemy; for all which glorious ſervices, and driving the Turks out of Hungary, he was ungratefully requited by the emperor Leopold.

Sobieſki returning to Poland, continued the war againſt the Turks, but unfortunately quarrelled with the ſenate, who ſuſpected that he wanted to make the crown hereditary in his family. He died, after a glorious reign, in 1696.

Poland fell into great diſtractions upon Sobieſki's death. Many confederacies were formed, but all parties ſeemed inclined to exclude the Sobieſki family. In the mean while, Poland was inſulted by the Tartars, and her crown was in a manner put up to ſale. The prince of Conti, of the blood royal of France, was the moſt liberal bidder; but while he thought the election almoſt ſure, he was diſappointed by the intrigues of the queen-dowager, in favour of her younger ſon, prince Alexander Sobieſki, for which ſhe was driven from Warſaw to Dantzic. All on a ſudden, Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, ſtarted up as a candidate, and after a ſham election, being proclaimed by the biſhop of Cujavia, he took poſſeſſion of Cracow with a Saxon army, and actually was crowned in that city, in 1697. The prince of Conti made ſeveral unſucceſsful efforts to re-eſtabliſh his intereſt, and pretended that he had been actually choſen; but he was afterwards obliged to return to France, and the other powers of Europe ſeemed to acquieſce in the election of Auguſtus. The manner in which he was driven from the throne, by Charles XII, of Sweden, (who procured the advancement of Staniſlaus) and afterwards reſtored by the czar, Peter the Great, has been already related in the hiſtory of Sweden. It was not till the year 1712 that Auguſtus was fully confirmed on the throne, which he held upon precarious and diſagreeable terms. The Poles were natuarally attached to Staniſlaus, and were perpetually forming conſpiracies and plots againſt Auguſtus, who was obliged to maintain his authority by means of his Saxon guards and regiments. In 1725, his natural ſon, prince Maurice, afterwards the famous count Saxe, was choſen duke of Courland; but Auguſtus was not able to maintain him in that dignity, againſt the power of Ruſſia and the jealouſy of the Poles. Auguſtus died, after an unquiet reign, in 1733, having done all he could

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to insure the succession of Poland to his son Augustus II (or, as he is called by some, III). This occasioned a war, in which the French king maintained the interest of his father-in-law, Stanislaus, who was actually re-elected to the throne by a considerable party, of which the prince primate was the head. But Augustus entering Poland with a powerful army of Saxons and Russians, compelled his rival to retreat into Dantzic, from whence he escaped with great difficulty into France. I have, in the history of Germany, mentioned the war between Augustus II, as elector of Saxony, or rather as the ally of Russia and Austria, and his present Prussian majesty. It is sufficient to say, that though Augustus was a mild moderate prince, and did every thing to satisfy the Poles, he never could gain their hearts; and all he obtained from them was merely shelter, when his Prussian majesty drove him from his capital and electorate. Augustus died at Dresden, in 1763, upon which count Stanislaus Poniatowski was chosen king, by the name of Stanislaus Augustus; though it is said that the election was conducted irregularly, and that he obtained the crown chiefly through the influence of the empress of Russia. He is a man of abilities and address; but, from various concurring causes, he has had the unhappiness to see Poland, during his reign, a scene of desolation and calamity. In 1766, two Polish gentlemen presented a petition to the king, in the name of all the protestant nobility, and in behalf also of the members of the Greek church, wherein they demanded to be reinstated in their ancient rights and privileges, and to be placed upon the same footing in every respect as the Roman catholic subjects of the kingdom. "The difference of sentiments upon some points of religion among Christians," said they, in their petition, "ought not to enter into any consideration with regard to the employments of the state. The different sects of Christians, although they differ in opinion among themselves with respect to some points of doctrine, agree all in one point, that of being faithful to their sovereign, and obedient to his orders: all the Christian courts are convinced of this truth; and therefore, having always this principle in view, and without having any regard to the religion they profess, Christian princes ought only to seek after those whose merit and talents make them capable of serving their country properly." The king gave no answer to the petition of the dissidents; but the matter was referred to the diet, which was held the following year, when the ministers of the courts of Russia, of London, of Berlin, and of Copenhagen, supported their pretensions. The diet appeared to flatter the complaints of the dissidents with great moderation, as to the free exercise of their worship, which gave some flattering expectations that the affair would be happily terminated. But the intrigues of the king of Prussia appear to have prevented this: for that prince, though he openly professed to be a zealous defender of the cause of the dissidents, it was manifest from the event, that his great aim was to promote the views of his own ambition. The intervention of the Russians in the affairs of Poland also gave great disgust to all parties in the kingdom. The whole nation ran into confederacies formed in distinct provinces; the popish clergy were active in opposing the cause of the dissidents; and this unfortunate country became the theatre of the most cruel and complicated of all wars; partly civil, partly religious, and partly foreign. The confusion, devastation, and civil war, continued in Poland during the years 1769, 1770, and 1771, whereby the whole face of the country was almost destroyed; many of the principal Popish families retired into foreign states with their effects; and had it not been for a body of Russian troops, which acted as guards to the king at Warsaw, that city had likewise exhibited a scene of plunder and massacre.

To theſe complicated evils were added, in the year 1770, that moſt dreadful ſcourge, the peſtilence, which ſpread from the frontiers of Turkey to the adjoining provinces of Podolia, Volhinia, and the Ukraine; and in theſe provinces it is ſaid to have ſwept off 250,000 of the people. Meanwhile ſome of the Popiſh confederates interceded with the Turks to aſſiſt them againſt their powerful oppreſſors; and a war enſued between the Ruſſians and the Turks on account of Poland. The conduct of the grand ſignior, and of the Ottoman Porte, towards the diſtreſſed Poles, was juſt and honorable, and the very reverſe of that of their Chriſtian, Catholic, and Apoſtolic neighbours*.

On September 3d, 1771, an attempt was made by Kozinſki, an officer among the Poliſh confederates, and ſeveral others, to aſſaſſinate the king of Poland, in the ſtreets of Warſaw. His majeſty received two wounds on the head, one from a ball, and the other from a ſabre; notwithſtanding which he had the good fortune to eſcape with life, by Kozinſki's relenting, for which his own life was ſaved, and he now reſides in the Papal territories, with an annual penſion from the king. Pulaſki, another of the conſpirators, diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the American ſervice, and was killed in attacking the Britiſh lines at Savannah, in 1779.

The following year, 1772, it appeared, that the king of Pruſſia, the emperor and empreſs queen, and empreſs of Ruſſia, had entered into an alliance to divide and diſmember the kingdom of Poland; though Pruſſia was formerly in a ſtate of vaſſalage to Poland, and the title of king of Pruſſia was never acknowledged by the Poles till 1764. Ruſſia alſo, in the beginning of the 17th century, ſaw its capital and throne poſſeſſed by the Poles; while Auſtria, in 1683, was indebted to a king of Poland for the preſervation of the metropolis, and almoſt for it very exiſtence. Theſe three allied powers, acting in concert, ſet up their formal pretenſions to the reſpective diſtricts which they had allotted for and guaranteed to each other: Poliſh or Weſtern Pruſſia, and ſome diſtricts bordering upon Brandenburg, for the king of Pruſſia; almoſt all the ſouth-eaſt parts of the kingdom bordering upon Hungary, together with the rich ſalt-works of

* In 1764, the empreſs of Ruſſia tranſmitted to the court of Warſaw an act of renunciation, ſigned with her own hand, and ſealed with the ſeal of the empire; wherein ſhe declares, "That ſhe did by no means arrogate either to herſelf, her heirs, and ſucceſſors, or to her empire, any right or claim to the diſtricts, or territories, which are actually in poſſeſſion, or ſubject to the authority of the kingdom of Poland, or great duchy of Lithuania; but that, on the contrary, her ſaid majeſty would guarantee to the ſaid kingdom of Poland and duchy of Lithuania, all the immunities, lands, territories, and diſtricts, which the ſaid kingdom and duchy ought by right to poſſeſs, or did now actually poſſeſs; and would at all times, and for ever, maintain them in the full and free enjoyment thereof, againſt the attempts of all and every one who ſhould at any time or on any pretext, endeavour to diſpoſſeſs them of the ſame." In the ſame year did the king of Pruſſia ſign, with his own hand, an act, wherein he declareth, "That he had no claims, formed no pretenſions on Poland, or any part thereof: that he renounced all claims on that kingdom, either as king of Pruſſia, elector of Brandenburg, or duke of Pomerania." In the ſame inſtrument he guarantees, in the moſt ſolemn manner, the teritories and rights of Poland againſt every power whatever. The empreſs-queen of Hungary, ſo late as the month of January, 1771, wrote a letter with her own hand to the king of Poland, in which ſhe gave him the ſtrongeſt aſſurances, "That her friendſhip for him and the republic was firm and unalterable; that the motions of her troops ought not to alarm him; that ſhe had never entertained a thought of ſeizing any part of his dominions, nor would even ſuffer any other power to do it."—From which, according to the political creed of princes, we may infer, that to guarantee the rights, liberties, and revenues of a ſtate, means to annihilate thoſe liberties, ſeize upon thoſe rights, and appropriate thoſe revenues to their own uſe. Such is the faith of princes, the inſtability of human politics, and of human affairs!

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the crown, for the empreſs-queen of Hungary and Bohemia *; and a large diſtrict of country about Mohilow, upon the banks of the Dnieper, for the empreſs of Ruſſia †. But though each of theſe powers pretended to have a legal title to the territories which were allotted them reſpectively, and publiſhed manifeſtos in juſtification of the meaſures which they had taken, yet as they were conſcious that the fallacies by which they ſupported their pretenſions were too groſs to impoſe upon mankind, they forced the Poles to call a new diet, and threatened them, that if they did not conſent unanimouſly to ſign a treaty for the ceding of thoſe provinces to them reſpectively, the whole kingdom would be laid under a military execution, and treated as a conquered ſtate. In this extremity of diſtreſs, ſeveral of the Poliſh nobility proteſted againſt this violent act of tyranny, and retired into foreign ſtates, chooſing rather to live in exile, and to have all their landed property confiſcated, than to be inſtruments of bringing their country to utter ruin; but the king, under the threatening of depoſition and impriſonment, was prevailed upon to ſign this act, and his example was followed by many of his ſubjects.

The king of Pruſſia's conduct in Poland was the moſt tyrannical that can be conceived. In the year 1771, his troops entered into Great Poland, and during the ſpace of that year he carried off, from that province and its neighbourhood, at a moderate computation, 12,000 families. On the 29th of October, in the ſame year, he publiſhed an edict, commanding every perſon, under the ſevereſt penalties, and even corporal puniſhment, to take in payment for forage, proviſions, corn, horſes, &c. the money offered by his troops and commiſſaries. This money was either ſilver, bearing the impreſſion of Poland, and exactly worth one third of its nominal value, or ducats ſtruck in imitation of Dutch ducats, ſeventeen per cent. inferior to the real ducats of Holland. With this baſe money he bought up corn and forage enough, not only to ſupply his army for two whole years, but to ſtock magazines in the country itſelf, where the inhabitants were forced to come and re-purchaſe corn for their daily ſubſiſtence at an advanced price, and with good money, his commiſſaries refuſing to take the ſame coin they had paid. At the loweſt calculation, he gained, by this *honeſt* manœuvre, ſeven millions of dollars. Having ſtripped the country of money and proviſions, his next attempt was to thin it ſtill more of its inhabitants. To people his own dominions, at the expence of Poland, had been his great aim: for this purpoſe, he hit upon a new contribution; every town and village was obliged to furniſh a certain number of marriageable girls; the parents to give as a portion, a feather-bed, four pillows, a cow, two hogs, and three ducats in gold. Some were bound hand and foot, and carried off as criminals. His exactions from the abbeys, convents, cathedrals, and nobles, were ſo heavy, and exceeded at laſt their abilities ſo much, that the prieſts abandoned their churches,

* The diſtrict claimed by Auſtria, was "all that tract of land lying on the right ſide of the Viſtula, from Sileſia above Sandomir, to the mouth of the San, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoiſe, and Rubieſſow, to the Bog: from the Bog along the frontiers of Red Ruſſia to Zabras, on the borders of Volhinia and Podolia, and from Zabras in a ſtraight line to the Nieper, where it receives the Sbrytz, taking in a part of Podolia, and then along the boundaries ſeparating Podolia and Moldavia." This country is now incorporated with Auſtria, under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria.

† The Ruſſian claims compriſe Poliſh Livonia, that part of the Palatinate of Polorſk to the eaſt of the Duna—the palatinates of Vitepſk, Miciſlaw, and the portions of the palatinate of Minſk. This tract of land (Poliſh Livonia excepted) is ſituated in White Ruſſia, and includes full one third of Lithuania. It is now divided into the two governments of Poloſk and Mohilef.

and the nobles their lands. Theſe exactions continued with unabated rigour, from the year 1771, to the time the treaty of partition was declared, and poſſeſſion taken of the provinces uſurped. From theſe proceedings it would appear, that his Pruſſian majeſty knew of no rights but his own; no pretenſions but thoſe of the houſe of Brandenburg; no other rule of juſtice but his own pride and ambition.

The violent diſmemberment and partition of Poland has juſtly been conſidered as the firſt great breach in the modern political ſyſtem of Europe. The ſurpriſe of a town, the invaſion of an inſignificant province, or the election of a prince, who had neither abilities to be feared, nor virtues to be loved, would ſome years ago have armed one half of Europe, and called forth all the attention of the other. But the deſtruction of a great kingdom, with the conſequent diſarrangement of power, dominion, and commerce, has been beheld by the other nations of Europe with the moſt aſtoniſhing indifference and unconcern. The courts of London, Paris, Stockholm, and Copenhagen, remonſtrated againſt the uſurpations, but that was all. Poland was forced to ſubmit, and the partition was ratified by their diet, held under the bribes and threats of the three powers. In the ſenate there was a majority of six, but in the lower houſe, or aſſembly of nuncios, there was but one in favour of the meaſure, 54 againſt 53. This is a very alarming circumſtance, and ſhows that a moſt important, though not happy change, has taken place in that general ſyſtem of policy, and arrangement of power and dominion, which had been for ſome ages an object of unremitting attention with moſt of the ſtates of Europe. Our anceſtors might, perhaps, on ſome occaſions, diſcover rather more anxiety about preſerving the balance of power in Europe than was neceſſary: but it has been well remarked, that the idea of conſidering Europe as a vaſt commonwealth, of the ſeveral parts being diſtinct and ſeparate, though politically and commercially united, of keeping them independent, though unequal in power, and of preventing any one, by any means, from becoming too powerful for the reſt, was great and liberal, and, though the reſult of barbariſm, was founded upon the moſt enlarged principles of the wiſeſt policy. It appears to be owing to this ſyſtem, that this ſmall part of the weſtern world, has acquired ſo aſtoniſhing a ſuperiority over the reſt of the globe. The fortune and glory of Greece proceeded from a ſimilar ſyſtem of policy, though formed upon a ſmaller ſcale. Both her fortune and glory expired with that ſyſtem.

The revolution, which happened in this country on the 3d of May, 1791, deſervedly engaged much of the public attention. The evils of elective monarchy were indeed the chief cauſe that Poland had almoſt ceaſed to be conſidered as a nation. The dynaſty of future kings of Poland was to commence in Frederic Auguſtus, elector of Saxony, with the right of inheritance to his male deſcendants: in caſe the preſent elector ſhould have no male iſſue, a huſband choſen by him for his daughter, with the conſent of the Poliſh repreſentatives, ſhall begin the dynaſty. But after this boaſted change, Poland would only have advanced to that degree of civilization which other European countries enjoyed in the 13th century. Her hundreds of citizens would have been free, her millions of peaſants ſlaves; at the utmoſt, not above five hundred thouſand out of fifteen millions would have been free.

After a ſhort and unequal ſtruggle with Ruſſia, this unhappy country, has been forced to abandon the new conſtitution, and may again be regarded as a Ruſſian province. The Poliſh king ſeems, in the conſciouſneſs of his own rectitude, and of the general patriotiſm, too much to have neglected

SWITZERLAND, with its SUBJECTS & ALLIES from the best AUTHORITIES.

6 Longitude East from London 7 8 9 10

47 46

FRANCE
GERMANY
ITALY
Mulhausen
Rhine R.
Huningen
Basil
Beffort
Grandvillard
Montbelliard
Ferrete
Sekingen
Rheinfelden
Rhine
Waldshut
Lauffen
Liechstall
Lauffenbrugh
Blamont
Porentru
Delmont
St Urane
CANTON of BASIL
BISHOPRICK of BASIL
Walkenburg
Brugg
Baden
Mellingen
Keiserstul
Eglisau
Bodmen
Zell
Höhent. Twiel
Schaffhausen
SCHAFFHAUSEN
Stein
Stockboren
Andelfingen
Frauenfeld
Thur R.
Lake of CONSTANCE
Meersburg
Buckhorn
Lanndau
Bregentz
Arbon
Bischoffzel
Wyl
St Gall
ST GALL
Rheineck
Rhine R.
St Hippolite
French Compte
Dou R.
Munster
Wiedlisbach
Olten
Aarburg
Zofingen
Arwangen
Soleure
Aran
Lentzburgh
Pfeffikon
Greifensee
Zurich
ZURICH
Liechtenstein
Trogen
Appenzel
CANTON of APPENZEL
Feld Kirch
Grunigen
Uznach
Saa
Gamprs
Werdenberg
Mayenfield
Sargans
Wesen
Mollenstadt
Einsidlin
CANTON of SCHWITZ
Schwitz
L. Walenstadt
Mat R.
Glarus
CANTON of GLARUS
LEAGUE
Haldenstein
Coire
Davos
JURIDICTIONS
Reichenau
Hanz
Vorder Rhine
GREY LEAGUE
Tusis
Silva Plana
Siglio
Chiavenna
Maira R.
HIAVENNA
VALTELINE
Sondrio
Tirano
Adda R.
Morbegno
Gravedona
Lake Como
Como
Lecco
Bellinzona
RIVIERA
Maggia
LOCARNO
Locarno
LUGANO
Lugano
Lake Locarno
Domo d'Ossola
Ugogno
Toza R.
Anza R.
Vigezzo
Simplon
Mt Furca
Mt Grimsel
Mt St Gothard
Rhone R.
Leuk
Brig
Sion
Bremis
Opis
Viep
Viep R.
St Martin
Usser R.
Brone R.
St Maurice
Martigny
Bex
Aigle
Villeneuve
Rhone R.
Vevay
Lausanne
Lutri
Cully
Morges
Aubonne
Rolle
Nyon
Gex
Copet
GENEVA
Bonne
Bernex
St Julian
Bonneville
Evian
Thonon
LAKE of GENEVA
Cossonex
Rue
Gruyers
Echallens
Moudon
Romont
FRIBOURG
Oberal
Spietz
L. Thun
Thun
Meyringen
L. Brientz
Engelberg
Altdorf
Stantz
Stantzstad
Lucerne
L. Lucerne
CANTON of LUCERNE
Entlibuch
Sarnen
Schwartzenburgh
Tribourg
Payerne
Avenches
Grandson
Yverdun
Orbe
Pontarlier
Neufchatel
Neuville
Nidau
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Morteau
Soleure
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Tirano
Morbegno
Gravedona
Lecco
Como
Lake Como
Lugano
Locarno
Bellinzona
Maggia
RIVIERA
HAGGLA

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree.
5 10 15 20 25 30 35
Common German Miles 15 to a Degree.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

9

10

E R M A N Y

Bodmen

Zell

Hohent Twiel

SCHAFF-

Schaffhausen

HAUSEN

Stein

Meerspurg

Buckhorn

LAKE OF CONSTANCE

Stockboren

CONSTANCE

Lanndau

Andelfingen

Frauenfeld

Thur R.

Arbon

Bregentz

Lenzburg

Bischoffzel

Bulach

Wyl

St Gall

Rheineck

CANTON of

Zurich

Pfeffikon

Greifensee

Trogen

Rhine R.

URICH

Grüningen

Liechtenstey

Appenzel

Zl. Zurich

Thur R.

CANTON of APPENZEL

Feld Kirch

Uznach

Saxe

Gonten

Wesen

Wendensberg

CANTON

of

Einsidlin

Wallenstadt

SCHWEITZ

Sargans

Schweitz

L. Wallenstadt

Mat R.

Mayenfield

Glarus

GLARUS

LEAGUE

Altdorf

Haldenstein

OF TEN

Coire

JURIDICTIONS

Davos

Reichenau

Rhine

Hantz

Glurnt:

GREY

Turis

Julia R.

LEAGUE OF GODS

Mt

St Gothard

LEAGUE

HOUSE

Rhine

URI

Tesin

Silva Piana

BORMIO

Suglio

ALBRENN

Maira R.

Chiavenna

HIAVENNA

Bormio

RIVIERA

Adda R.

Bellinzona

BELLINZONA

Tirano

VALTELINE

Sondrio

OCARNO

Gravedona

Edolo

Locarno

Adda R.

LUGANO

Morbegno

Lake Locarno

Lugano

Lake Como

Como

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree.

5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40

Lecco Common-German Miles 15 to a Degree.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

47

46

9

10

neglected the ſerpentine paths of prudence upon this occaſion; the previous aſſent of Saxony ſhould have been procured; and the ſacrifice of Dantzic and Thorn to Pruſſia, though doubtleſs great, was yet to be preferred to the preſent national annihilation. The manifeſto of the Ruſſian empreſs, replete with ſentiments diſgraceful to humanity, and which only ſhow that ſhe, and ſome other deſpots, have reſolved to inſult an enlightened age, by appearing in the dangerous character of profeſſed foes to mankind, was followed by ſome ſkirmiſhes; but it is ſaid that a letter, written with her own hand to the Poliſh king, in which ſhe declared her reſolution to double or triple her troops, rather than abandon her pretenſions, induced that benignant monarch to prevent the farther effuſion of blood. It is certainly to be hoped that the empreſs, who, as a princeſs of the greateſt talents, muſt be ſenſible that lenient meaſures are the moſt laſting, may uſe her ſucceſs with moderation, and may ſecure the affections of the people, by a complete emancipation of the peaſantry; a meaſure which might not only redeem, and increaſe her glory, but which is the only one that, by provoking induſtry, and its attendants, wealth and power, can raiſe a kingdom, which ſhe intends for her grandſon, Conſtantine Paulowitz, and his heirs, to any importance. But is Pruſſia forgetful that a family-compact muſt follow to its danger, if not ruin, and to the conſequent imminent hazard of the liberties of Europe? Have princes reſolved to ſacrifice every pretext of the balance of power, and even the moſt evident intereſts of their royal poſterity, to their perſonal pride, and diſlike to freedom?

This devoted kingdom is far from being tranquil. Though it may not, perhaps, be the intereſt of Pruſſia to permit the aggrandizement, it is ſtill leſs ſo to allow it to become a province of Ruſſia. The Pruſſian party will gradually revive, and Poland may long continue divided and diſtracted. The Poliſh king has made the greateſt ſubmiſſion to Ruſſia. We did not think that a throne had been worth ſo much to a liberal mind. Abdication might have merited praiſe, but would have eſcaped cenſure. A new partition is expected.

Staniſlaus Auguſtus (late count Poniatowſki) was born Jan. 17, 1732, elected king of Poland September 7, and crowned Nov. 25, 1764. This prince, while a private nobleman, reſided ſome time in London, and is a fellow of the Royal Society.

SWITZERLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 260	between	6 and 11 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 100	between	46 and 48 north latitude.

Containing 13,000 ſquare miles, with 138 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Alſace and Swabia in Germany, on the North; by the lake of Conſtance, Tyrol, and Trent, on the Eaſt; by Italy, on the South; and by France, on the Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] Switzerland is divided into thirteen cantons, which ſtand, in point of precedency, as follows: 1. Zurich; 2. Berne; 3. Lucerne; 4. Uri; 5. Schweitze; 6. Underwalden; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Baſil; 10. Fribourg; 11. Soleure; 12. Schaffhauſen; 13. Appenzel.

The beſt account we have of the dimenſions and principal towns of each canton, is as follows:

Switzerland.	Countries' Names.	Miles in Length	Miles in Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
Calviniſts.	Berne	111	87	Berne	
	Zurich	34	33	Zurich	
	Schaffhauſen	23	9	Schaffhauſen	
	Bazil	21	18	BASIL	47-40 N. Lat. 7-40 E. Long.
Papiſts.	Lucerne	33	35	Lucerne	
	Underwalden	23	16	Stantz	
	Uri	48	21	Altorf	
	Suiſſe	27	13	Suiſſe	
	Fribourg	24	21	Fribourg	
	Zug	18	10	Zug	
	Soleure	31	24	Soleure, or Solothurn	
Calviniſts and Papiſts.	Appenzel	23	21	Appenzel	
	Glaris	24	18	Glaris	
The ſubjects of the Switzers Calviniſts and Papiſts.	Baden	26	12	Baden	
	Bremgarten			Bremgarten	
	Meillingen			Meillingen	
	Rheinthal	20	5	Rheineck	
	Thargau	18	11	Frowenfield	
	Lugano	52	30	Lugano	
	Locarno			Locarno	
	Mendris			Mendris	
	Maggia			Maggia	

Allies of the Switzers.	Countries' Names.	Miles in Length	Miles in Breadth.	Chief Cities.
Calveniſts.	Griſons	100	62	Coire
Subjects of the Griſons. Calviniſts & Pap.	Chiavanna	42	24	Chiavanna
	Bormio and	27	19	Bondio
	Valteline			
Calviniſts.	Tockenburg	27	8	Liechtenſteg
	Geneva	13	11	Geneva
	Neufchatel	32	20	Neufchatel
Papiſts.	Valais	80	30	Sion
	Baſle	13	16	Delſperg
	St. Gall	20	10	St. Gall
				Mulhauſen, in Alſace, is alſo united to them.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.

This being a mountainous country, lying upon the Alps (which form an amphitheatre of more than 100 miles) the froſts are conſequently bitter in winter, the hills being covered with ſnow ſometimes all the year long. In ſummer the inequality of the ſoil renders the ſame province very unequal in its ſeaſons; on one ſide of thoſe mountains the inhabitants are often reaping, while they are ſowing on another. The vallies, however, are warm and fruitful, and well cultivated, and nothing can be more delightful than the ſummer months in this charming country. It is ſubject to rains and tempeſts; for which reaſon public granaries are every where erected, to ſupply the failure of their crops. The water of Switzerland is generally excellent, and often deſcends from the mountains in large or ſmall cataracts, which have a delightful effect.

There

There is, perhaps, no country in the world wherein the advantageous effects of unwearied and perſevering induſtry are more remarkably conſpicuous than in Switzerland. In paſſing over the mountainous parts thereof, the traveller is ſtruck with admiration, to obſerve rocks that were formerly barren, now planted with vines, or abounding with rich paſture; and to mark the traces of the plough along the ſides of precipices ſo ſteep, that a horſe could not even mount them without great difficulty. In ſhort, the inhabitants ſeem to have ſurmounted every obſtruction which ſoil, ſituation, and climate, have thrown in their way, and to have ſpread fertility over various ſpots of the country, which nature ſeemed to have conſigned to everlaſting barrenneſs. The feet of the mountains, and ſometimes alſo the very ſummits, are covered with vineyards, corn-fields, meadows, and paſture grounds. Other parts of this country are more dreary, conſiſting almoſt entirely of barren and inacceſſible rocks, ſome of which are continually covered with ſnow or ice. The vallies between theſe icy and ſnowy mountains appear like ſo many ſmooth frozen lakes, and from them vaſt fragments of ice frequently fall down into the more fruitful ſpots beneath. In ſome parts there is a regular gradation from extreme wildneſs to high cultivation; in others the tranſitions are very abrupt, and very ſtriking. Sometimes a continued chain of cultivated mountains, richly clothed with wood, and ſtudded all over with hamlets, cottages above the clouds, paſtures which appear ſuſpended in the air, exhibit the moſt delightful landſcape that can be conceived; and in other places appear rugged rocks, cataracts, and mountains of a prodigious height, covered with ice and ſnow. "Behold our wall and bulwarks," exclaimed a Swiſs peaſant, pointing to the mountains; "Conſtantinople is not ſo ſtrongly fortified." In ſhort, Switzerland abounds with the moſt picturеſque ſcenes; and here are to be found ſome of the moſt ſublime exhibitions of nature, in her moſt aweful and tremendous forms, and in thoſe ſtupendous Alps, "whoſe heads touch heaven."

GLACIERS.] No ſubject in natural hiſtory is more curious than the origin of theſe glaciers, which are immenſe fields of ice, and uſually reſt on an inclined plain; being puſhed forwards by the preſſure of their own weight, and but weakly ſupported by the rugged rocks beneath, they are interſected by large tranſverſe crevices; and preſent the appearance of walls, pyramids, and other fantaſtic ſhapes, obſerved at all heights and in all ſituations, wherever the declivity is beyond thirty or forty degrees.

Mr. Coxe deſcribes the method of travelling over theſe glaciers. "We had each of us a long pole ſpiked with iron; and in order to ſecure us as much as poſſible from ſlipping, the guides faſtened to our ſhoes *crampons*, or ſmall bars of iron; provided with four ſmall ſpikes of the ſame metal. At other times, inſtead of *crampons*, we had large nails in our ſhoes, which more effectually anſwered our purpoſe. The difficulty of croſſing theſe valleys of ice, ariſes from the immenſe chaſms. We rolled down large ſtones into ſeveral of them; and the great length of time before they reached the bottom, gave us ſome conception of their depth; our guides aſſured us, that in ſome places they are not leſs than five hundred feet deep. I can no otherwiſe convey to you an image of this body of ice, broken into irregular ridges and deep chaſms, than by comparing it to a lake inſtantaneouſly frozen in the midſt of a violent ſtorm." In ſpeaking of an unſucceſsful attempt of ſome gentlemen to reach the ſummit of Mont Blanc, he preſents to his readers a moſt horrid image of the danger of theſe chaſms. "As they were returning in great haſte (owing to the day being far advanced) one of the party ſlipped in attempting to leap over a chaſm of ice. 'He held in his hand a long pole, ſpiked with iron, which

he

he ſtruck into the ice; and upon this he hung dreadfully ſuſpended for a few moments, until he was releaſed by his companions."

MOUNTAINS.] In this mountainous country, where nature is all upon a grand ſcale, Mont Blanc is particularly diſtinguiſhed from other mountains, by having its ſummits and ſides clothed to a conſiderable depth with a mantle of ſnow, almoſt without the intervention of the leaſt rock to break the glare of the *white* appearance. According to the calculation of Mr. De Luc (by whoſe improvement of the barometer, elevations are taken with a degree of accuracy before unattainable) the height of this mountain above the level of the ſea is 2,391½ French toiſes, or 15,304 Engliſh feet; or according to ſir George Shuckborough, 15,662 feet, which gives a difference of only 358 feet. The Peaks of Teneriffe and Ætna have been frequently ſuppoſed to be the higheſt points of the globe, but from the moſt accurate obſervations it will be found that Mont Blanc is of much more conſiderable elevation, and that there are no mountains (except thoſe in America, particularly Chimboraco, the higheſt point of the Cordilleras, the elevation of which, according to Condamine, ſurpaſſes 3,000 toiſes, or 19,200 feet, but according to others, 20,608 feet) which are equal to the altitude of Mont Blanc.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The chief rivers are the Rhine (which riſes in the chain of mountains bordering on St. Gothard) the Aar, the Reuſs, the Teſin, the Oglio, and the Rhone. The lakes are thoſe of Geneva, Conſtance, Thun, Lucerne, Zurich, Biel, and Brien.

METALS AND MINERALS.] The mountains contain mines of iron, cryſtal, virgin ſulphur, and ſprings of mineral waters.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS.] Switzerland produces ſheep and cattle, wine, wheat, barley, oats, rye, flax, and hemp; plenty of apples, pears, nuts, cherries, plums, and cheſnuts; the parts towards Italy abound in peaches, almonds, figs, citrons, and pomegranates; and moſt of the cantons abound in timber. Beſides game, fiſh, and fowl, are alſo found, in ſome of the higher and more inacceſſible parts of the Alps, the bouquetin and chamois, whoſe activity in ſcouring along the ſteep and craggy rocks, and in leaping over the precipices, is hardly conceivable. The blood of both theſe animals is of ſo hot a nature, that the inhabitants of ſome of theſe mountains, who are ſubject to pleuriſies, take a few drops of it, mixed with water, as a remedy for that diſorder. The fleſh of the chamois is eſteemed very delicious. Among the Alps is likewiſe found a ſpecies of hares, which in ſummer is ſaid perfectly to reſemble other hares, but in winter become all over white, ſo that they are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable among the ſnow. But this idea hath been lately exploded, nor is it certain whether the two ſpecies ever couple together. The white hare ſeldom quits his rocky reſidence. Here are alſo yellow and white foxes, which in winter ſometimes come down into the vallies.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] According to the beſt accounts, the cantons of Switzerland contain about 2,000,000 of inhabitants, who are a brave, hardy, induſtrious people, remarkable for their fidelity, and their zealous attachment to the liberties of their country. Like the old Romans, they are equally inured to arms and agriculture. A general ſimplicity of manners, an open and unaffected frankneſs, together with an invincible ſpirit of freedom, are the moſt diſtinguiſhing characteriſtics of the inhabitants of Switzerland. A very ſtriking proof of the ſimplicity and openneſs of manners of this people, and of aſtoniſhing confidence, is mentioned by Mr. Coxe, who ſays, upon the authority of general Pfiffer, that, on each ſide of the road that runs through the valley of Muotta, in the canton of Schweitz,

Schweitz, there are several ranges of small shops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: any passengers who with to become purchasers, enter the shops, take away the merchandize, and deposit the price, which the owners call for in the evening. They are in general a very enlightened nation; their common people are far more intelligent than the same rank of men in most other countries; a taste for literature is very prevalent among those who are in better circumstances, and even among many of the lowest rank; and a genuine and unartful good breeding is extremely conspicuous in the Swiss gentry. On the first entrance into this country, the traveller cannot but observe the air of contentment and satisfaction which appears in the countenances of the inhabitants. The cleanliness of the houses, and of the people, is peculiarly striking; and in all their manners, behaviour, and dress, some strong outlines may be traced, which distinguish this happy people from the neighbouring nations, who labour under the oppressions of despotic government. Even the Swiss cottages convey the liveliest image of cleanliness, ease, and simplicity, and cannot but strongly impress upon the observer a most pleasing conviction of the peasant's happiness. In some of the cantons, each cottage has its little territory, consisting generally of a field or two of fine pasture ground, and frequently skirted with trees, and well supplied with water. Sumptuary laws are in force in most parts of Switzerland: and no dancing is allowed, except upon particular occasions. Silk, lace, and several other articles of luxury, are totally prohibited in some of the cantons; and even the head dresses of the ladies are regulated. All games of hazard are also strictly prohibited; and in other games, the party who loses above six florins, which is about nine shillings of our money, incurs a considerable fine. Their diversions, therefore, are chiefly of the active and warlike kind; and as their time is not wasted in games of chance, many of them employ part of their leisure hours in reading, to the great improvement of their understandings. The youth are diligently trained to all the martial exercises, such as running, wrestling, throwing the hammer, and shooting both with the cross-bow and the musket.

GOITERS AND IDIOTS.] The inhabitants in one part of this country, particularly in the republic of Vallais, are very much subject to *goiters*, or large excrescences of flesh that grow from the throat, and often increase to a most enormous size; but what is more extraordinary, idiotism also remarkably abounds among them. "I saw," says Mr. Coxe, "many instances of both kinds; as I passed through Sion, some idiots were basking in the sun with their tongues out, and their heads hanging down, exhibiting the most affecting spectacle of intellectual imbecility that can possibly be conceived." The causes which produce a frequency of these phænomena in this country, form a very curious question.

The notion that snow-water occasions these excrescences is totally void of foundation. For on that supposition, why are the natives of those places that lie most contiguous to the glaciers, and who drink no other water than what descends from these immense reservoirs of ice and snow, free from this malady? And why are the inhabitants of those countries in which there is no snow, afflicted with it? For, these guttural tumours are to be found in the environs of Naples, in the island of Sumatra, and at Patna, and Purnea in the East Indies, where snow is unknown.

The springs that supply drink to the natives, are impregnated with a calcareous matter, called in Switzerland *tuf*, nearly similar to the incrustations of Matlock in Derbyshire, so minutely dissolved as not in the least to affect the transparency of the water. It is not improbable, that the impalpable particles of this substance, thus dissolved, should introduce themselves into

into the glands of the throat, and produce goiters, for the following reaſons: becauſe *tuf*, or this calcareous depoſition, abounds in all thoſe diſtricts where goiters are common. There are goitrous perſons and much *tuf* in Derbyſhire, in various parts of the Vallais, in the Valteline, at Lucerne, Fribourg, and Berne, near Aigle and Bex, in ſeveral places of the Pays de Vaud, near Dreſden, in the Valleys of Savoy and Piedmont, near Turin and Milan. But the ſtrongeſt proof in favour of this opinion, ſays our author, is derived from the following facts: A ſurgeon whom I met at the baths of Leuk, informed me, that he had not unfrequently extracted concretions of *tuf ſtone* from ſeveral goiters; and that from one in particular, which ſuppurated, he had taken ſeveral flat pieces, each about half an inch long. He added that the ſame ſubſtance is found in the ſtomach of cows, and in the goitrous tumours, to which even the dogs of the country are ſubject. He had diminiſhed and cured the goiters of many young perſons by emollient liquors, and external applications; and prevented them in future, by removing his patients from the place where the ſprings are impregnated with *tuf*; and, if that could not be contrived, by forbidding the uſe of water which was not purified.

Children are occaſionally born with guttural ſwellings, but this may ariſe from the aliment of the mother. It is to be preſumed that a people accuſtomed to theſe excreſcences, will not be ſhocked at their deformity; but it does not appear, as ſome writers aſſert, that they conſider them as beauties. To judge from the account of many travellers, it might be ſuppoſed that the natives, without exception, were either idiots or goitrous; whereas, in fact, the Vallaiſans, in general, are a robuſt race; and all that with truth can be affirmed, is that goitrous perſons and idiots are more abundant in ſome diſtricts of the Vallais, than perhaps in any other part of the globe. It has been aſſerted that the people very much reſpect theſe idiots, and even conſider them as *bleſſings from heaven*. The common people, it is certain, eſteem them ſo, for they call them "*ſouls of God without ſin*;" and many parents prefer theſe idiot children to thoſe whoſe underſtandings are perfect, becauſe, as they are incapable of intentional criminality, they conſider them as certain of happineſs in a future ſtate. Nor is this opinion entirely without its good effect, as it diſpoſes the parents to pay greater attention to ſuch helpleſs beings. Theſe idiots are ſuffered to marry, as well among themſelves as with others*.

RELIGION.] Though all the Swiſs cantons form but one political republic, yet they are not united in religion, as the reader, in the table prefixed, may perceive. Thoſe differences in religion formerly created many public commotions, which ſeem now to have ſubſided. Zuinglius was the apoſtle of proteſtantiſm in Switzerland. He was a moderate reformer, and differed from Luther and Calvin only in a few ſpeculative points; ſo that Calviniſm may be ſaid to be the religion of the proteſtant Swiſſes. But this muſt be underſtood chiefly with reſpect to the mode of the church government; for in ſome doctrinal points they are far from being univerſally Calviniſtical. There is, however, too much religious bigotry prevalent among them; and though they are ardently attached to the intereſts of civil liberty, their ſentiments on the ſubject of religious toleration are in general much leſs liberal.

LANGUAGE.] Several languages prevail in Switzerland; but the moſt common is German. The Swiſſes who border upon France, ſpeak a baſtard French, as thoſe near Italy do a corrupted Latin or Italian.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Calvin, whoſe name is ſo well known in all proteſtant countries, inſtituted laws for the city of Geneva,

* Coxe's Travels through Switzerland, vol. i. p. 335, &c.

which are held in high eſteem by the moſt learned of that country. The ingenious and eloquent Rouſſeau too, whoſe works the preſent age have received with ſo much approbation, was a citizen of Geneva. Rouſſeau gave a force to the French language, which it was thought incapable of receiving. In England he is generally known as a proſe-writer only, but the French admire him as a poet. His Opera of the *Devin de Village* in particular is much eſteemed. M. Bonnet, and Meſſ. de Sauſſure and de Luc alſo deſerve to be mentioned with applauſe, and will be remembered till the Alps ſhall be no more.

UNIVERSITIES.] The univerſity of Baſil, which was founded in 1459, has a very curious phyſic-garden, which contains the choiceſt exotics; and adjoining to the library, which contains ſome valuable manuſcripts, is a muſeum well furniſhed with natural and artificial curioſities, and with a great number of medals and paintings. In the cabinets of Eraſmus and Amerbach, which alſo belong to this univerſity, there are no leſs than twenty original pieces of Holbein; for one of which, repreſenting a dead Chriſt, a thouſand ducats have been offered. The other univerſities, which indeed are commonly only ſtyled colleges, are thoſe of Bern, Lauſanne, and Zurich.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL. Every diſtrict of a canton in this mountainous country preſents the traveller with a natural curioſity: ſometimes in the ſhape of wild but beautiful proſpects, interſperſed with lofty buildings, and wonderful hermitages, eſpecially one, two leagues from Friburg. This was formed by the hands of a ſingle hermit, who laboured on it for 25 years, and was living in 1707. It is the greateſt curioſity of the kind perhaps in the world, as it contains a chapel, a parlour 28 paces in length, 12 in breadth, and 20 feet in height, a cabinet, a kitchen, a cellar, and other apartments, with the altar, benches, flooring, cieling, all cut out of the rock.

At Schaffhauſen is a very extraordinary bridge over the Rhine, juſtly admired for the ſingularity of its architecture. The river is extremely rapid, and had already deſtroyed ſeveral ſtone bridges of the ſtrongeſt conſtruction, when a carpenter of Appenzel offered to throw a wooden bridge of a ſingle arch acroſs the river, which is near four hundred feet wide. The magiſtrates, however, required that it ſhould conſiſt of two arches, and that he ſhould for that purpoſe employ the middle pier of the old bridge. Accordingly the architect was obliged to obey; but he has contrived to leave it a matter of doubt, whether the bridge is ſupported by the middle pier, and whether it would not have been equally as ſafe if formed ſolely of one arch. The ſides and top are covered, and it is what the Germans call a *hængewerk*, or hanging bridge; the road, which is almoſt level, is not carried, as uſual, over the top of the arch; but, if the expreſſion may be allowed, is let into the middle of it and there ſuſpended. A man of the lighteſt weight feels it almoſt tremble under him, yet waggons heavily laden paſs over without danger. It has been compared to a tight rope, which trembles when ſtruck, but ſtill preſerves its firm and equal tenſion. On conſidering the greatneſs of the plan, and the boldneſs of the conſtruction, it is matter of aſtoniſhment that the architect was originally a carpenter, without the leaſt tincture of literature, totally ignorant of mathematics, and not verſed in the theory of mechanics. His name was Ulric Grubenmann. The bridge was finiſhed in leſs than three years, and coſt about 8000l. ſterling.

At the famous paſs of *Pierre Pertuis*, the road is carried through a ſolid rock near 50 feet thick, the height of the arch 26, and its breadth 25. The marcaſites, falſe diamonds, and other ſtones found in thoſe mountains, are juſtly ranked among the natural curioſities of the country. The

ruins

ruins of Cæsar's wall, which extended 18 miles in length, from Mount Jura to the banks of Lake Leman, are still discernible. Many monuments of antiquity have been discovered near the baths of Baden, which were known to the Romans in the time of Tacitus. Switzerland boasts of many noble religious buildings, particularly a college of Jesuits; and many cabinets of valuable manuscripts, antiques, and curiosities of all kinds. At Lucerne (says Mr. Coxe) is to be seen a topographical representation of the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, by general Pfiffer, a native of this town, and an officer in the French service. It is a model in relief, and well deserves the attention of the curious traveller. What was finished in 1776, comprised about 60 square leagues, in the cantons of Lucerne, Zug, Berne, Uri, Schweitz and Underwalden. The model was twelve feet long, and nine and a half broad. The composition is principally a mastic of charcoal, lime, clay, a little pitch, with a thin coat of wax; and is so hard as to be trod upon without receiving the least damage. The whole is painted with different colours, representing the objects as they appear in nature. It is worthy of particular observation, that not only the woods of oak, beech, pine, and other trees are distinguished; but also that the strata of the several rocks are marked, each being shaped upon the spot, and formed with granite, gravel, calcareous stone, or such other natural substances as compose the original mountains. The plan is indeed so minutely exact, that it comprizes not only all the mountains, lakes, towns, villages, and forests; but every cottage, every torrent, every road, and even every path is distinctly and accurately represented. The general takes his elevations from the level of the lake of Lucerne, which, according to M. de Saussure, is about fourteen hundred and eight feet above the Mediterranean. This model, exhibiting the most mountainous parts of Switzerland, conveys a sublime picture of immense Alps piled one upon another; as if the story of the Tytans were realized, and they had succeeded (at least in one spot of the globe) in heaping Ossa upon Pelion, and Olympus upon Ossa From the account of this officer, it appears, that there are continued chains of mountains of the same elevation, rising in progression to the highest range, and from thence gradually descending in the same proportion to Italy. Near Rosiniere is a famous spring, which rises in the midst of a natural bason of 12 square feet; the force that acts upon it must be prodigious; after a great shower of rain, it carries up a column of water as thick as a man's thigh, nearly a foot above its surface. Its temperature never varies, its surface is clear as crystal, and in depth unfathomable; probably the end of some subterraneous lake, that hath here found an issue for its waters.

Cities.] Of these the most considerable is the city of Bern, standing on the river Aar. This city and canton, it is said, form almost a third of the Helvetic confederacy, and can, upon occasion, fit out 100,000 armed men. All the other cities in Switzerland are excellently well provided with arsenals, bridges, and public edifices. Basil is accounted by some the capital of all Switzerland. It is situated in a fertile and delightful country, on the banks of the Rhine, and the confines of Alsace and the empire. It contains two hundred and twenty streets, and six market-places. The town-house, which stands on the river Birsec, is supported by very large pillars, and its great hall is finely painted by the celebrated Hans Holbein, who was a native of this city. The situation of Basil is pleasing: the Rhine divides it into the upper and lower town, and it is considered as one of the keys of Switzerland. Baden is famous for its antiquity and baths. Zurich is far less considerable than Bern, but in the arsenal is shown the bow of the famous William Tell, and in the library is a manuscript of

excellent letters, written by the unfortunate Lady Jane Grey, to the judicious reformer Bullinger, in elegant Latin and German.

To prevent a repetition, I ſhall here mention the city of Geneva, which is an aſſociate of Switzerland, and is under the protection of the Helvetic body, but within itſelf is an independent ſtate and republic. This city is well built, and well fortified, and contains 24,000 inhabitants, moſt of whom are Calviniſts. It is ſituated upon the afflux of the Rhone from the large fine lake of Geneva, It is celebrated for the learning of the profeſſors of its univerſity, and the good government of its colleges, the purity of its air, and the politeneſs of its inhabitants. By its ſituation it is a thoroughfare from Germany, France, and Italy. It contains a number of fine manufactures and artiſts; ſo that the proteſtants, eſpecially ſuch as are of a liberal turn, eſteem it a moſt delightful place. But the fermentation of their politics, and particularly the uſurpation of the ſenate, hath divided the citizens into parties, and the late ſtruggle of patricians and plebeians had nearly ruined all. Many of its valuable citizens have accordingly left the place, and ſought refuge and protection in Ireland and elſewhere.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The productions of the loom, linen, dimity, lace, ſtockings, handkerchiefs, ribands, ſilk and painted cottons and gloves, are common in Switzerland, and the inhabitants are now beginning, notwithſtanding their ſumptuary laws, to fabricate ſilks, velvets, and woollen manufactures. Their great progreſs in thoſe manufactures and in agriculture, gives them a proſpect of being able ſoon to make conſiderable exports.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Theſe are very complicated heads, though belonging to the ſame body, being partly ariſtocratical, and partly democratical. Every canton is abſolute in its own juriſdiction, but thoſe of Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne, with other dependencies, are ariſtocratical, with a certain mixture of democracy, Berne excepted. Thoſe of Uri, Schweitz, Underwald, Zug, Glaris, and Appenzel, are democratical. Baſil, though it has the appearance of an ariſtocracy, rather inclines to a democracy. But even theſe ariſtocracies and democracies differ in their particular modes of government. However, in all of them the real intereſts of the people appear to be much attended to, and they enjoy a degree of happineſs not to be expected in deſpotic goverments. Each canton hath prudently reconciled itſelf to the errors of its neighbour, and cemented on the baſis of affection, a ſyſtem of mutual defence.

The confederacy, conſidered as a republic, comprehends three diviſions. The firſt are the Swiſſes, properly ſo called. The ſecond are the Griſons, or the ſtates confederated with the Swiſſes, for their common protection. The third are thoſe prefectures, which, though ſubject to the other two, by purchaſe or otherwiſe, preſerve each its own particular magiſtrates. Every canton forms within itſelf a little republic; but when any controverſy ariſes that may affect the whole confederacy, it is referred to the general diet, which ſits at Baden, where each canton having a vote, every queſtion is decided by the majority. The general diet conſiſts of two deputies from each canton, beſides a deputy from the abbot of St. Gall, and the cities of St. Gall and Bien. It is obſerved by Mr. Coxe, to whom the public have been indebted for the beſt account of Switzerland that has appeared, that there is no country in which happineſs and content more univerſally prevail among the people. For whether the government be ariſtocratical, democratical, or mixed, a general ſpirit of liberty pervades and actuates the ſeveral conſtitutions; ſo that even the oligarchical ſtates (which of all others, are uſually the moſt tyrannical) are here peculiarly mild;

mild; and the property of the ſubject is ſecurely guarded againſt every kind of violation. A harmony is maintained by the concurrence of their mutual felicity; and their ſumptuary laws and equal diviſion of their fortunes among their children, ſeem to enſure its continuance. There is no part of Europe which contains, within the ſame extent of region, ſo many independent commonwealths, and ſuch a variety of different governments, as are collected together in this remarkable and delightful country; and yet, with ſuch wiſdom was the Helvetic union compoſed, and ſo little have the Swiſs, of late years, been actuated by the ſpirit of conqueſt, that ſince the firm and complete eſtabliſhment of their general confederacy, they have ſcarcely ever had occaſion to employ their arms againſt a foreign enemy; and have had no hoſtile commotions among themſelves, that were not very ſoon happily terminated.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The variety of cantons that conſtitute the Swiſs confederacy, renders it difficult to give a preciſe account of their revenues. Thoſe of the canton of Bern are ſaid to amount annually to 300,000 crowns, and thoſe of Zurich to 150,000; the other cantons in proportion to their produce and manufactures. Whatever is ſaved, after defraying the neceſſary expences of government, is laid up as a common ſtock; and it has been ſaid, that the Swiſſes are poſſeſſed of 500,000l. ſterling in the Engliſh funds, beſides their property in other banks.

The revenues ariſe, 1. From the profits of the demeſne land; 2. The tenth of the produce of all the lands in the country; 3. Cuſtoms and duties on merchandiſe; 4. The revenues ariſing from the ſale of ſalt, and ſome caſual taxes.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The internal ſtrength of the Swiſs cantons, independent of the militia, conſiſts of 13,400 men, raiſed according to the population and abilities of each. The œconomy and wiſdom with which this force is raiſed and employed, are truly admirable, as are the arrangements which are made by the general diet, for keeping up that great body of militia, from which foreign ſtates and princes are ſupplied, ſo as to benefit the ſtate, without any prejudice to its population. Every burgher, peaſant, and ſubject, is obliged to exerciſe himſelf in the uſe of arms; appear on the ſtated days for ſhooting at the mark; furniſh himſelf with proper clothing, accoutrements, powder, and ball; and to be always ready for the defence of his country. The Swiſs engage in the ſervice of foreign princes and ſtates, either merely as guards, or as marching regiments, in the latter caſe the government permits the enliſting volunteers, though only for ſuch ſtates as they are in alliance with, or with whom they have entered into a previous agreement on that article. But no ſubject is to be forced into foreign ſervice, or even to be enliſted without the concurrence of the magiſtracy.

HISTORY.] The preſent Swiſſes and Griſons, as has been already mentioned, are the deſcendants of the ancient Helvetii, ſubdued by Julius Cæſar. Their mountainous, uninviting ſituation, formed a better ſecurity for their liberties than their forts or armies; and the ſame is the caſe at preſent. They continued long under little better than a nominal ſubjection to the Burgundians and Germans, till about the year 1300, when the emperor, Albert I, treated them with ſo much rigour, that they petitioned him againſt the cruelty of his governors. This ſerved only to double the hardſhips of the people; and one of Albert's Auſtrian governors, Greſler, in the wantonneſs of tyranny, ſet up a hat upon a pole, to which he ordered the natives to pay as much reſpect as to himſelf. The famous William Tell, being obſerved to paſs frequently without taking notice of the hat, and being an excellent markſman, the tyrant condemned

him

Plate XVI.

9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 1

43 42 41 40 39 38 37 36

BAY OF BISCAY

C. Ortegal · Ferrol · Corunna · Betanzos · Encobras · Neltid · Cape Finisterre · Compostella · Villa Garcia · Tuy · Vigo · Pontevedra · Carmorga · Lugo · Orense · Portomarin · Vigales · S. Estevan · Tuy · Cela Nova · Viana · Minho R. · Camin · Monte Rey · Braganza · Chaves · Prades · Braga · Cuna · Docaida · Miranda · Paradela · Miga · Sanabria · Benavente · Toro · Rueda · Zamora · Valparaiso · Salamanca · Medina · Olmedo · Riaza · Roa · Aranda · Osma · Aranda · Calatajud · Fuentes · Belchite · Fraga · Lerida · Monblanc · Tarragona · Cervera · Balaguer · Tortosa · Ebro R. · Morella · Morella · Cortes · Villa Formosa · Montanejos · Xelva · Segorbe · Liria · Morviedro · Guadalaviar R. · Valencia · Murviedro · Sagunto · Puzol · Cape de Oliveta · Denia · Cape St. Martin · Formentera · Ivica · Majorca · Dragonera · Cape Salinas · Cape Blanco · Cape Tenez · Algiers · Cape Caxine · Cape Bona · Tripoli · Cape Mesurata · Cape Tenez · Algiers · Cape Caxine · Cape Bona · Tripoli · Cape Mesurata

Bilboa · S. Sebastian · Bayonne · Fontarabia · Passage · Motrico · Laredo · Santander · Castropol · Ribadaria · Villalo · Buran · Oviedo · Llanes · Avile · Ribadesella · Gijon · Cape Penas · Samson · Avilles · Salvador · Manferet · Penaflor · Oviedo · Orduna · Tolosa · Segura · Vitoria · Araquil · Pampeluna · Olleron · Pyrenean Mountains · Ainsa · Huesca · Benavarra · Balbastro · Cuera · Saragosa · Borja · Tarazona · Tauste · Agreda · Soria · Calahorra · Tudella · Lagrono · Milagro · Viana · Estella · Xavier · Sanguessa · Olite · Aise · Jaca · Lobera · Fisca · Campo · Morillo · Exea · Venasque · Viescas · Olite · Tafalla · Romentale · Haro · Frias · Saldanna · Leon · Mansilla · St. Miguel · Astorga · Valencia de Don Juan · Fromista · Palencia · Burgos · Benavente · Sanabria · Toro · Rueda · Valladolid · Lerma · Roa · Aranda · Osma · Riaza · Medina · Olmedo · Segovia · Sepulveda · Ayla · Escurial · Madrid · Alcala · Gundalajara · Brihuega · Ilduefonso · Siguenza · Ozeda · Molina · Foveda · Castelnovo · Albarzin · Poyos · Priego · Una · Cuenza · Montalban · Mora · Morella · Juan · Cortes · Villa Formosa · Montanejos · Xelva · Segorbe · Liria · Morviedro · Guadalaviar R. · Valencia · Murviedro · Sagunto · Puzol · Cape de Oliveta · Denia · Cape St. Martin · Formentera · Ivica · Majorca · Dragonera · Cape Salinas · Cape Blanco · Cape Tenez · Algiers · Cape Caxine · Cape Bona · Tripoli · Cape Mesurata

Arevalo · Medina del Campo · Olmedo · Segovia · Sepulveda · Ayla · Escurial · Madrid · Alcala · Gundalajara · Brihuega · Ilduefonso · Siguenza · Ozeda · Molina · Foveda · Castelnovo · Albarzin · Poyos · Priego · Una · Cuenza · Montalban · Mora · Morella · Juan · Cortes · Villa Formosa · Montanejos · Xelva · Segorbe · Liria · Morviedro · Guadalaviar R. · Valencia · Murviedro · Sagunto · Puzol · Cape de Oliveta · Denia · Cape St. Martin · Formentera · Ivica · Majorca · Dragonera · Cape Salinas · Cape Blanco · Cape Tenez · Algiers · Cape Caxine · Cape Bona · Tripoli · Cape Mesurata

Toledo · Temblecque · Ocaña · Orgas · Mora · Villa Franca · Canna · Belmonte · Uclés · Bouenache · Carboneres · Alarcon · Valera · Uriel · Campillo · Iniesta · Siette · Almanza · Tembleque · Villa harta · Calatrava · Tomelloso · Ciudad Real · Alcarez · Almanza · Chinchilla · Villena · Castulla · Alcu · Alicant · Elche · Orihuela · Murcia · Mula · Caravaca · Lorca · Alcantara · Guevar · Jaen · Cambil · Iznalloz · Iznena · Carthagena · Almararon · C. de Palos · C. de Gates · Almeria · Orgiva · Almunecar · Motril · Velez · Malaga · Ronda · Antequera · Alhama · Granada · Priego · Baeza · Ubeda · Andujar · Caroca · Mula · Murcia · Alcantara · Lorca · Solera · Boca · Cubas · Fiñana · Abdoduy · Vera · St. Lazaro · St. Pedro · Albaran I. · Mediterranean Sea · Africa

Abrantes · Santaren · Penche · Mugem · Alcantara · Tagus R. · Mont argil · Portalegre · Niza · Valencia · Huerta · Caceres · Truxillo · Guadaloupe · Alcantara · Meades · Tomar · Thomar · Leira · Dornes · Pareda · Castelbranco · Idanha · Coria · Placentia · Talavera · Toledo · Escrella · Tembleque · Almarez · Tagus R. · Montfort · Mora · Avis · Estremos · Elvas · Olivas · Badajos · Merida · Medellin · Orellana · Abenoyd · Almodovar · Allamillo · Quintina · Zuaga · Cuma · Ellerina · Segare · Tabarra · Cieca · Tolosa · Andujar · Ubeda · Caravaca · Mula · Murcia · Orihuela · Segura · Alcantara · Lorca · Guevar · Jaen · Cambil · Iznalloz · Iznena · Carthagena · Almararon · Solera · Boca · Cubas · Fiñana · Abdoduy · Vera · St. Lazaro · St. Pedro · Almeria · Orgiva · Almunecar · Motril · Velez · Malaga · Ronda · Antequera · Alhama · Granada · Priego · Baeza · Ubeda · Andujar · Caroca · Mula · Murcia · Orihuela · Segura · Alcantara · Lorca · Guevar · Jaen · Cambil · Iznalloz · Iznena · Carthagena · Almararon · C. de Palos · C. de Gates

9 8 7 6 2 3

C.Ortegal · Ortegal · Avile · C E · Se · the Groyn · Ribadaria · Ferrol · Castropol · Villalo · Corunna · Buran · A S T · Canal Royal · Narbonne · Encobras · Betanzos · Penaflor · Manferet · Mellid · 43 · Finisterre · Cape Finisterre · Lugo · Compostella · Carmorga · Vigales · untains · Villa Garcia · Portomarin · GALICIA · M · Perpignan · Colioure · Urgel · Pontevedra · Orense · Asto · Pallarois · Rose · Vigo · S.t Estevan · Empurias · Tuy · Cela Nova · Viana · Senebria · TALONIA · 42 · Minho R. · Camin · Monte Rey · L E · Girona · Ter R. · Palamos · Parad · Solsona · Bragança · Cordona · Ceutellas · ENTRE · Chaves · Viana · Mige · Manresa · Prades · Dacoda · Blanes · Braga · Cima · Miranda · Monserrat · MINHO · TRALOS MONTES · Barcelona · Argiuelo · Va · DOURO · Villa Real · Villafiore · Llobregat R. · Douro R. · Oporto · Figa · Rina · Villanova · Lamego · Ancaens · C. Salon · 41 · Feira · Castrodairo · Ativa · Sascello · Orar · Arcos · Pinhel · Lagos · Cam · Azete · Abracida · Ciudad · Rodrigo · Coimbra · Arganil · Guarda · MINORCA · Covilham · Campillo · Citadella · Buarcos · Miranda · Monte Santo · 40 · Pollenca · Laros · Castelbranco · Placentia · MAJORCA · Paredes · Leira · Dornes · Idanha · Coria · Dragonera · Majorca · Tomar · Meades · Abrantes · Alcantara · Pedra · Santaren · Penche · Niza · Valencia · P.a Vica · Mugem · Portalegre · Cabrera I. · Montargil · Caceres · Alcantara · 39 · Huerta · Montfort · LISBON · Mora · Avis · Estremos · Formentera I. · Medel · Atmeda · Setubal · Villa Viciosa · Badajos · Merida · Evora · GUADIANA · Alcazar · Salvaterra · Xeres · Ellerena · Melide · Cuba · Sierra · Marmelan · ALENTEJO · 38 · Beja · Serpa · Zafra · Sines · Lebrja · Paymogo · Mertola · Sambres · Xeres · Ourique · Niebla · Guardias · Chillas · St Lucar · ALGARVA · Aramonte · Palos · Cape St Vincent · Lagos · Silves · Lavira · Faro · 37 · Almonte · Lebr · Sagres · C. & I. St Maria · Guadiana R. · Guadalquivier or Turio R. · St Lucar · Arcos · P.t S. Mary · Med · Cadiz · Vege · Trafalgar · C A · Strai · Tangier · 36 · PAIN, and RTUGAL, om the beſt THORITIES.

British Statute Miles.
10 20 40 60 80 100

Spanish Miles.
5 10 15 20 25 30

9 Longitude West 8 from London 7 6 Longitude East 2 from London 3

him to be hanged, unleſs he cleft an apple upon his ſon's head, at a certain diſtance, with an arrow. Tell cleft the apple; and Greſler aſking him the meaning of another arrow he ſaw ſtuck in his belt, he bluntly anſwered, that it was intended for his (Greſler's) heart if he had killed his ſon. Tell was condemned to priſon upon this; but making his eſcape, he watched his opportunity, and ſhot the tyrant, and thereby laid the foundation of the Helvetic liberty.

It appears, however, that before this event, the revolt of the Swiſſes from the Auſtrian tyranny had been planned, by ſome noble patriots among them. Their meaſures were ſo juſt and their courſe ſo intrepid, that they ſoon effected an union of ſeveral cantons.

Zurich, driven by oppreſſion, ſought firſt an alliance with Lucerne, Uri, Suiſſe, and Underwald, on the principles of mutual defence; and the frequent ſucceſſes of their arms againſt Albert, duke of Auſtria, inſenſibly formed the grand Helvetic union. They firſt conquered Glaris and Zug, and admitted them to an equal participation of their rights. Berne united itſelf in 1353; Friburg and Soleure 130 years after; Baſil and Scaffhauſen in 1501; and Appenzel in 1513 completed the confederacy, which repeatedly defeated the united powers of France and Germany; till, by the treaty of Weſtphalia, in 1648, their confederacy was declared to be a free and independent ſtate.

Neufchatel, ſince the year 1707, hath been under the dominion of the king of Pruſſia, but the inhabitants are free to ſerve any prince whatever, and by no means bound to take an active part in his wars. The king hath the power of recruiting among them, and of naming a governor, but the revenue he derives is not above 5000 l. yearly, great part of which is laid out on the roads and other public works of the country. With regard to the military character, and great actions of the Swiſſes, I muſt refer the reader to the hiſtories of Europe.

SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 700	between	10 and 3 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 500		46 and 44 north latitude.

Containing 150,763 ſquare miles, with 69 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the Weſt by Portugal and the Atlantic Ocean; by the Mediterranean on the Eaſt; by the Bay of Biſcay and the Pyrenean mountains, which ſeparate it from France, on the North; and by the ſtrait of the ſea at Gibraltar on the South.

It is now divided into fourteen diſtricts, beſides iſlands in the Mediterranean.

Spain.	Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
	Caſtile, New	27,840	220	180	MADRID	N. Lat. 49-25. W. Long. 3-20.
	Andaluſia	16,500	273	135	Seville	
	Caſtile, Old	14,400	193	140	Burgos	
	Arragon	13,818	190	105	Saragoſſa	
	Eſtremadura	12,600	180	123	Bajados	
	Galicia	12,000	165	120	Compoſtella	
	Leon	11,200	167	96	Leon	
	Catalonia	9,000	172	110	Barcelona	
	Grenada	8,100	200	45	Grenada	
	Valencia	6,800	180	75	Valencia	
	Biſcay and Ipuſcoa	4,760	140	55	Bilboa	
	Aſturia	4,600	124	55	Oviedo	
	Murcia	3,600	87	65	Murcia	
	Upper Navarre	3,000	92	45	Pampeluna	
In the Mediterranean.	Majorca I.	1,400	58	40	Majorca	
	Yvica I.	625	37	25	Yvica	
	Minorca I.	520	41	20	Citadella	
	Total —	150,763				

The town and fortreſs of Gibraltar, ſubject to Great Britain.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS.] Spain formerly included Portugal, and was known to the ancients by the name of Iberia, and Heſperia, as well as Hiſpania. It was, about the time of the Punic wars, divided into Citerior and Ulterior; the Citerior contained the provinces lying north of the river Ebro; and the Ulterior, which was the largeſt part, comprehended all that lay beyond that river. Innumerable are the changes that it afterwards underwent; but there is no country of whoſe ancient hiſtory, at leaſt the interior part of it, we know leſs than that of Spain.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND WATER.] Except during the equinoctial rains, the air of Spain is dry and ſerene, but exceſſively hot in the ſouthern provinces in June, July, and Auguſt. The vaſt mountains that run through Spain are, however, very beneficial to the inhabitants, by the refreſhing breezes that come from them in the ſouthermoſt parts; though thoſe towards the north and north-eaſt are in the winter very cold, and in the night make a traveller ſhiver.

Such is the moiſture of the hills, bounded on the north by the Bay of Biſcay, and to the ſouth by ſnowy mountains, that no care is ſufficient to preſerve their fruits, their grain, their inſtruments of iron, from mould, from rot, and from ruſt. Both the acetous and the putrid fermentation here make a rapid progreſs. Beſides the relaxing humidity of the climate, the common food of the inhabitants contributes much to the prevalence of moſt diſeaſes which infect the principality of Aſturia. Yet, although ſubject to ſuch a variety of endemical diſeaſes, few countries can produce more inſtances of longevity; many live to the age of a hundred, ſome to a hundred and ten, and others much longer. The ſame obſervation may be extended to Galicia, where, in the pariſh of St. Juan de Poyo, A. D. 1724, the curate adminiſtered the ſacrament to thirteen perſons, whoſe ages together made one thouſand four hundred and ninety-nine, the youngeſt of theſe being one hundred and ten, and the oldeſt one hundred and twenty-ſeven. But in Villa de Foſinanes, one Juan de Outeyro, a poor labourer, died in the year 1726, aged more than one hundred and forty-ſix years.

The

The ſoil of Spain was formerly very fruitful in corn, but the natives have lately found ſome ſcarcity of it, by their diſuſe of tillage, through their indolence; the cauſes of which I ſhall explain afterwards. It produces, in many places, almoſt ſpontaneouſly, the richeſt and moſt delicious fruits that are to be found in France and Italy; oranges, lemons, prunes, citrons, almonds, raiſins, and figs. Her wines, eſpecially her ſack and ſherry, are in high requeſt among foreigners. There are, in the diſtrict of Malaga (according to Mr. Townſend, the lateſt traveller) fourteen thouſand vine-preſſes, chiefly employed in making the rich wines, which, if white, from the nature of the country, is called *Mountain*; if red, from the colour, *vino tinto*, known in England by the name of Tent. Good Mountain is ſold from thirteen to ſixteen pounds the butt, of one hundred and thirty-five gallons, according to quality and age. It is reckoned that from eight hundred to a thouſand veſſels enter this port every year, of which about one-tenth are Spaniſh, and the exports in wine, fruit, oil and fiſh, are computed at about 375,000l. per annum; but there have been times when it has been conſiderably more.

Spain indeed offers to the traveller large tracts of unpromiſing, becauſe uncultivated ground; but no country perhaps maintains ſuch a number of inhabitants who neither toil nor work for their food; ſuch are the generous qualities of the ſoil. Even ſugar-canes thrive in Spain; and it yields ſaffron, honey, and ſilk, in great abundance. A late writer, Uſtariz, a Spaniard, computes the number of ſhepherds in Spain to be 40,000; and has given us a moſt curious detail of their œcónomy, their changes of paſture at certain times of the year, and many other particulars unknown till lately to the public. Thoſe ſheep-walks afford the fineſt of wool, and are a treaſure in themſelves. Some of the mountains in Spain are clothed with rich trees, fruits, and herbage, to the tops; and Seville oranges are noted all over the world. No country produces a greater variety of aromatic herbs, which render the taſte of their kids and ſheep ſo exquiſitely delicious. The kingdom of Murcia abounds ſo much with mulberry-trees, that the product of its ſilk amounts to 200,000l. a year. Upon the whole, few countries in the world owe more than Spain does to nature, and leſs to induſtry.

The waters (eſpecially thoſe that are medicinal) of Spain are little known; but many ſalutiferous ſprings are found in Grenada, Seville, and Cordova. All over Spain the waters are found to have ſuch healing qualities, that they are outdone by thoſe of no country in Europe; and the incloſing, and encouraging a reſort to them, grow every day more and more in vogue, eſpecially at Alhamar, in Grenada.

Mountains.] It is next to impoſſible to ſpecify theſe, they are ſo numerous; the chief, and the higheſt, are the Pyrenées, near 200 miles in length, which extend from the Bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean, and divide Spain from France. Over theſe mountains there are only five narrow paſſages to France, and the road over the paſs that ſeparates Rouſſillon from Catalonia, reflects great honour on the engineer who planned it. It formerly required the ſtrength of 30 men to ſupport, and nearly as many oxen to drag up a carriage, which four horſes now do with eaſe. The Cantabrian mountains (as they are called) are a kind of continuation of the Pyrenees, and reach to the Atlantic Ocean, ſouth of Cape Finiſterre. No Engliſhman ought to be unacquainted with Mount Calpe, now called the Hill of Gibraltar, and, in former times, one of the pillars of Hercules; the other, Mount Abyla, lying oppoſite to it in Africa.

Among the mountains of Spain, Montſerrat is particularly worthy the attention of the curious traveller; one of the moſt ſingular in the world,

for ſituation, ſhape, and compoſition. It ſtands in a vaſt plain, about thirty miles from Barcelona, and nearly in the centre of the principality of Catalonia. It is called by the Catalonians Monte-ſerrado, or Mount Seie, words which ſignify a cut, or ſawed mountain; and is ſo called from its ſingular and extraordinary form; for it is ſo broken and divided, and ſo crowned with an infinite number of ſpiring cones, or pine heads, that it has the appearance, at a diſtant view, to be the work of man; but, upon a nearer approach, to be evidently the production of the God of Nature. It is a ſpot ſo admirably adapted for retirement and contemplation, that it has, for many ages, been inhabited only by monks and hermits, whoſe firſt vow is, never to forſake it. When the mountain is firſt ſeen at a diſtance, it has the appearance of an infinite number of rocks cut into conical forms, and built one upon another to a prodigious height, or like a pile of grotto work or Gothic ſpires. Upon a nearer view, each cone appears of itſelf a mountain: and the whole compoſes an enormous maſs about 14 miles in circumference, and the Spaniards compute it to be two leagues in height *. As it is like no other mountain, ſo it ſtands quite unconnected with any, though not far diſtant from ſome that are very lofty. A convent is erected on the mountain, dedicated to our lady of Montſerrat, to which pilgrims reſort from the fartheſt parts of Europe. All the poor who come here are fed gratis for three days, and all the ſick received into the hoſpital. Sometimes, on particular feſtivals, ſeven thouſand perſons arrive in one day; but people of condition pay a reaſonable price for what they eat. On different parts of the mountain are a number of hermitages, all of which have their little chapels, ornaments for ſaying maſs, water ciſterns, and moſt of them little gardens. The inhabitant of one of theſe hermitages, which is dedicated to St. Benito, has the privilege of making an annual entertainment on a certain day, on which day all the other hermits are invited, when they receive the ſacrament from the hands of the mountain vicar; and after divine ſervice dine together. They meet alſo at this hermitage, on the days of the ſaints to which their ſeveral hermitages are dedicated, to ſay maſs, and commune with each other. But at other times they live in a very ſolitary and recluſe manner, perform various penances, and adhere to very rigid rules of abſtinence, nor do they ever eat fleſh. Nor are they allowed to keep within their walls either dog, cat, bird, or any living thing, leſt their attention ſhould be withdrawn from heavenly to earthly affections. The number of profeſſed monks there, is 76, of lay brothers 28, and of ſinging boys 25; beſides phyſician, ſurgeon, and ſervants. Mr. Thicknneſſe, who has publiſhed a very particular deſcription of this extraordinary mountain, was informed by one of the hermits, that he often ſaw from his habitation the iſlands of Minorca, Majorca, and Yvica, and the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] Theſe are the Duero, formerly Durius, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Oporto in Portugal; the Tajo or Tagus, which falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Liſbon; the Guadiana falls into the ſame ocean near Cape Finiſterre; as does the Guadalquiver, now Turio, at St. Lucar; and the Ebro, the ancient Iberus, falls into the Mediterranean Sea below Tortoſa.

The river Tinto, the qualities of which are very extraordinary, riſes in Sierra Morena, and empties itſelf into the Mediterranean, near Huelva;

* Mr. Swinburne eſtimates its height at only 3,300 feet. and obſerves that the arms of the convent are, the Virgin Mary ſitting at the foot of a rock half cut through by a ſaw.

having the name of Tinto given it for the tinge of its waters, which are as yellow as a topaz, hardening the ſand, and petrifying it in a moſt ſurpriſing manner. If a ſtone happens to fall in, and reſt upon another, they both become, in a year's time, perfectly united and conglutinated.—This river withers all the plants on its banks, as well as the roots of trees, which it dies of the ſame hue as its waters. No kind of verdure will come up where it reaches, nor any fiſh live in its ſtream. It kills worms in cattle when given them to drink; but in general no animals will drink out of this river, excepting goats, whoſe fleſh nevertheleſs has an excellent flavour. Theſe ſingular properties continue till other rivulets run into it and alter its nature; for when it paſſes by Niebla, it is not different from other rivers, and falls into the Mediterranean ſea, ſix leagues lower do n.

Several lakes in Spain, particularly that of Beneventa, abound with fiſhes, particularly excellent trout. The water of a lake near Antiquera is made into ſalt by the heat of the ſun.

BAYS.] The chief bays are thoſe of Biſcay, Ferrol, Corunna (commonly called the Groyne) Vigo, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Carthagena, Alicant, Altea, Valencia, Roſes, Majorca in that iſland, and the harbour of Port-Mahon, in the iſland of Minorca. The ſtrait of Gibraltar divides Europe from Africa.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Spain abounds in both, and in as great variety, and of the ſame kinds, as the other countries of Europe. Cornelian, agate, loadſtones, jacinths, torquois ſtones, quickſilver, copper, lead, ſulphur, alum, calamine, cryſtal, marbles of ſeveral kinds, porphyry, the fineſt jaſper, and even diamonds, emeralds, and amethyſts, are found here. The Spaniſh iron, next to that of Damaſcus, furniſhes the beſt arms in the world; and, in former times, brought in a vaſt revenue to the crown; the art of working it being here in great perfection.—Even to this day, Spaniſh gun barrels, and ſwords of Toledo, are highly valued. Amongſt the ancients, Spain was celebrated for gold and ſilver mines; and ſilver was in ſuch plenty, that Strabo, who was contemporary with Auguſtus Cæſar, informs us. that when the Carthaginians took poſſeſſion of Spain, their domeſtic and agricultural utenſils were of that metal. Theſe mines have now diſappeared; but whether by their being exhauſted, or through the indolence of the inhabitants in not working them, we cannot ſay; though the latter cauſe ſeems to be the moſt probable.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND.] The Spaniſh horſes, eſpecially thoſe of Andaluſia, are thought to be the handſomeſt of any in Europe, and at the ſame time very fleet and ſerviceable. The king does all he can to monopoliſe the fineſt breeds for his own ſtables and ſervice. Spain furniſhes likewiſe mules and black cattle; and their wild bulls have ſo much ferocity, that their bull-feaſts were the moſt magnificent ſpectacle the court of Spain could exhibit, nor are they now diſuſed. Wolves are the chief beaſts of prey that peſter Spain, which is well ſtored with all the game and wild fowl that are to be found in the neighbouring countries already deſcribed. The Spaniſh ſeas afford excellent fiſh of all kinds, eſpecially anchovies, which are here cured in great perfection. This country is much infeſted with locuſts; and Mr. Dillon obſerves, that in 1754, La Mancha was covered with them, and the horrors of famine aſſailed the fruitful provinces of Andaluſia, Murcia, and Valencia. They have ſometimes appeared in the air in ſuch numbers as to darken the ſky; the clear atmoſphere of Spain has become gloomy; and the fineſt ſummer day in Eſtremadura been rendered more diſmal than the

winter of Holland. Their ſenſe of ſmelling is ſo delicate, that they can diſcover a corn field or a garden, at a conſiderabl diſtance; and which they will ravage almoſt in an inſtant. Mr. Dillon is of opinion, that the country people, by timely attention and obſervation, might deſtroy the eggs of theſe formidable inſects, and thereby totally extirpate them.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS. Spain, formerly the moſt populous kingdom in Europe, is now but thinly inhabited. This is owing, partly to the great drains of people ſent to America, and partly to the indolence of the natives, who are at no pains to raiſe food for their families. Another cauſe may be aſſigned, and that is, the vaſt numbers of eccleſiaſtics, of both ſexes, who lead a life of celibacy. Some writers have given ſeveral other cauſes, ſuch as their wars with the Moors, and the final expulſion of that people. The preſent inhabitants of this kingdom have been computed by Feyjoo, a Spaniſh writer, to amount to 9,250,000; ſo that England is three times as populous as Spain, conſidering its extent.

The perſons of the Spaniards are generally tall, eſpecially the Caſtilians; their hair and complexions ſwarthy, but their countenances are very expreſſive The court of Madrid has of late been at great pains to clear their upper lips of muſtachoes, and to introduce among them the French dreſs, inſtead of their black cloaks, their ſhort jerkin, ſtrait breeches, and long Toledo ſwords, which dreſs is now chiefly confined to the lower ranks. The Spaniards, before the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon to their throne, affected that antiquated dreſs, in hatred and contempt of the French; and the government, probably, will find ſome difficulty in aboliſhing it quite, as the ſame ſpirit is far from being extinguiſhed. An old Caſtilian, or Spaniard, who ſees none above him, thinks himſelf the moſt important being in nature; and the ſame pride is commonly communicated to his deſcendants. This is the true reaſon why many of them are ſo fond of removing to America, where they can retain all their native importance, without the danger of ſeeing a ſuperior.

Ridiculous, however, as this pride is, it is productive of the moſt exalted qualities. It inſpires the nation with generous, humane, and virtuous ſentiments; it being ſeldom found that a Spaniſh nobleman, gentleman, or even trader, is guilty of a mean action. During the moſt embittered wars they have had with England, for near 70 years paſt, we know of no inſtance of their taking advantage (as they might eaſily have done) of confiſcating the Britiſh property on board their galleons and Plate fleet, which was equally ſecure in time of war as peace. This is the more ſurpriſing, as Philip V was often needy, and his miniſters were far from being ſcrupulous of breaking their good faith with Great Britain.

By the beſt and moſt credible accounts of the late wars, it appears, that the Spaniards in America gave the moſt humane and noble relief to all Britiſh ſubjects who were in diſtreſs, and fell into their hands, not only by ſupplying them with neceſſaries, but money; and treating them in the moſt hoſpitable manner while they remained among them.

Having ſaid thus much, we are carefully to diſtinguiſh between the Spaniſh nobility, gentry, and traders, and their government, which is to be put on the ſame footing with the lower ranks of Spaniards, who are as mean and rapacious as thoſe of any other country. The kings of Spain, of the houſe of Bourbon, have ſeldom ventured to employ native Spaniards, of great families, as their miniſters. Theſe are generally French or Italians, but moſt commonly the latter, who riſe into power by

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the moſt infamous arts, and of late times from the moſt abject ſtations.—Hence it is, that the French kings of Spain, ſince their acceſſion to that monarchy, have been but very indifferently ſerved in the cabinet. Alberoni, who had the greateſt genius among them, embroiled his maſter with all Europe, till he was driven into exile and diſgrace; and Grimaldi, the laſt of their Italian miniſters, hazarded a rebellion in the capital, by his oppreſſive and unpopular meaſures.

The common people who live on the coaſts, partake of all the bad qualities that are to be found in other nations. They are an aſſemblage of Jews, French, Ruſſians, Iriſh adventurers, and Engliſh ſmugglers; who being unable to live in their own country, mingle with the Spaniards.—In time of war, they follow privateering with great ſucceſs; and when peace returns, they engage in all illicit practices, and often enter into the Iriſh and Walloon guards in the Spaniſh ſervice. There are about 40,000 gypſies, and who, beſides their fortune-telling, are inn-keepers in the ſmall towns and villages. The character of the Spaniards is thus drawn by Mr. Swinburne, after his late travels through the country: "The Catalians appear to be the moſt active ſtirring ſet of men, the beſt calculated for buſineſs, travelling, and manufactures. The Valencians are a more ſullen ſedate race, better adapted to the occupations of huſbandmen, leſs eager to change place, and of a much more timid, ſuſpicious caſt of mind than the former. The Andaluſians ſeem to be the greateſt talkers and rhodomontaders of Spain. The Caſtilians have a manly frankneſs, and leſs appearance of cunning and deceit. The New Caſtilians are perhaps the leaſt induſtrious of the whole nation; the Old Caſtilians are laborious, and retain more of ancient ſimplicity of manner; both are of a firm determined ſpirit. The Arragoneſe are a mixture of the Caſtilian and Catalan, rather inclining to the former. The Biſcayners are acute and diligent, fiery and impatient of control, more reſembling a colony of republicans, than a province of an abſolute monarchy; and the Galicians are a plodding pains-taking race of mortals, that roam over Spain in ſearch of an hardly earned ſubſiſtence."

The beauty of the Spaniſh ladies reigns moſtly in their novels and romances; for though it muſt be acknowledged that Spain produces as fine women as any country in the world, yet beauty is far from forming their general character. In their perſons, they are generally ſmall and ſlender; but they are ſaid to employ vaſt art in ſupplying the defects of nature.—If we were to hazard a conjecture, we might reaſonably ſuppoſe that thoſe artifices rather diminiſh than increaſe the beauty, eſpecially when they are turned of 25. Their indiſcriminate uſe of paint, not only upon their faces, but their necks, arms, and hands, undoubtedly disfigure their complexions and ſhrivels their ſkin. It is at the ſame time univerſally allowed, that they have great wit and vivacity.

After all I have ſaid, it is more than probable, that the vaſt pains taken by the government of Spain may at laſt eradicate thoſe cuſtoms and habits among the Spaniards that ſeem ſo ridiculous to foreigners. They are univerſally known to have refined notions and excellent ſenſe; and this, if improved by ſtudy and travelling, which they now ſtand in great need of, would render them ſuperior to the French themſelves. Their ſlow deliberate manner of proceeding, either in council or war, has of late years worn off to ſuch a degree, that during the two laſt wars, they were found to be as quick both in reſolving and executing, if not more ſo, than their enemies. Their ſecrecy, conſtancy, and patience, have always been deemed exemplary; and in ſeveral of their provinces, particularly Galicia, Gre-

nada, and Andaluſia, the common people have for ſome time aſſiduouſly applied themſelves to agriculture and labour.

Among the many good qualities poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, their ſobriety in eating and drinking is remarkable. They frequently breakfaſt, as well as ſup, in bed; their breakfaſt is uſually chocolate, tea being very ſeldom drank. Their dinner is generally beef, mutton, veal, pork, and bacon, greens, &c. all boiled together. They live much upon garlic, chives, ſallad, and radiſhes; which, according to one of their proverbs, are food for a gentleman. The men drink very little wine; and the women uſe water or chocolate. Both ſexes uſually ſleep after dinner, and take the air in the cool of the evening. This is the common practice in warm countries, ſuch as Italy, Spain, and Portugal, where, generally ſpeaking, the weather is clear, and the inhabitants are moſtly in the habit of riſing much earlier than in England. The human body cannot furniſh ſpirits ſufficient to reſiſt the effects of the violent heat, through the whole day, without ſome ſuch refreſhment: it is therefore the univerſal practice to go to ſleep for ſome hours after dinner, which in thoſe countries is over early; and this time of repoſe, which laſts for two or three hours, is in Spain called *the Sieſta*, and in Portugal *the Se?a*. Dancing is ſo much their favourite entertainment, that you may ſee a grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the ſame country-dance. Many of their theatrical exhibitions are inſipid and ridiculous bombaſt. The prompter's head ſometimes appears through a trap-door, above the level of the ſtage, and he reads the play loud enough to be heard by the audience. Gallantry is a ruling paſſion in Spain. Jealouſy, ſince the acceſſion of the houſe of Bourbon, has ſlept in peace. The nightly muſical ſerenades of miſtreſſes by their lovers, are ſtill in uſe. The fights of the cavaliers, or bull feaſts, are almoſt peculiar to this country, and make a capital figure in painting the genius and manners of the Spaniards. On theſe occaſions, young gentlemen have an opportunity of ſhowing their courage and activity before their miſtreſſes; and the valour of the cavalier is proclaimed, honoured, and rewarded, according to the number and fierceneſs of the bulls he has killed in theſe encounters. Great pains are uſed in ſettling the form and weapons of the combat, ſo as to give a relief to the gallantry of the cavalier. The diverſion itſelf, which is attended with circumſtances of great barbarity, is undoubtedly of Mooriſh original, and was adopted by the Spaniards when upon good terms with that nation, partly through complaiſance, and partly through rivalſhip.

There is not a town in Spain but what has a large ſquare for the purpoſe of exhibiting bull-fights; and is ſaid that even the pooreſt inhabitants of the ſmalleſt villages will often club together, in order to procure a cow or an ox, and fight them, riding upon aſſes for want of horſes.

RELIGION.] The horrors of the Romiſh religion, the only one tolerated in Spain, are now greatly leſſened there, by moderating the penalties of the inquiſition, a tribunal diſgraceful to human nature; but though diſuſed, it is not abrogated; only the eccleſiaſtics and their officers can carry no ſentence into execution without the royal authority: it is ſtill in force againſt the Mooriſh and Jewiſh pretended converts. The Spaniards embrace and practice the Roman catholic religion with all its abſurdities; and in this day they have been ſo ſteady, that their king is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of *Moſt Catholic*. It appears, however, that the burning zeal which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors above the reſt of the Catholic world, hath loſt much of its activity, and ſeems nearly extinguiſhed, and the power of the clergy has been much reduced of late years. A royal edict

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has alſo been iſſued, to prevent the admiſſion of noviciates into the different convents, without ſpecial permiſſion, which has a great tendency to reduce the monaſtic orders. It is computed that there are now, in the kingdom of Spain, 54,000 friars, 34,000 nuns, and 20,000 ſecular clergy, but as little true moral religion as in any country under heaven.

In Catalonia, the confidence of the people on the interceſſion of ſaints has at all periods been a ſource of conſolation to them, but upon ſome occaſions has betrayed them into miſchief. Every company of artiſans, and every ſhip that ſails, is under the immediate protection of ſome patron. Beſides folio volumes, which teſtify the innumerable miracles performed by our lady in Montſerrat, every ſubordinate ſhrine is loaded with votive tablets. This has been the parent of preſumption, and among the merchants has brought many families to want. The companies of inſurance in the laſt war, having each of them its favourite ſaint, ſuch as San Ramon de Penaforte, la Virgen de la Merced, and others, aſſociated in form by the articles of partnerſhip, and named in every policy of inſurance; and having with the moſt ſcrupulous exactneſs allotted to them their correſpondent dividend, the ſame as to any other partner, they concluded that with ſuch powerful aſſociates it was not poſſible for them to ſuffer loſs. Under this perſuaſion, they ventured, about the year 1779, to inſure the French Weſt Indiamen at fifty per cent. when the Engliſh and Dutch had refuſed to do it at any premium, and indeed when moſt of the ſhips were already in the Engliſh ports. By this fatal ſtroke, all the inſuring companies, except two, were ruined; yet, notwithſtanding this misfortune, this ſuperſtition remains in force.

Archbishoprics and bishoprics.] In Spain there are eight archbiſhoprics, and forty-ſix biſhoprics. The archbiſhop of Toledo is ſtyled the primate of Spain; he is great chancellor of Caſtile, and hath a revenue of 100,000l. ſterling per annum; but the Spaniſh court hath now many ways of leſſening the revenues of the church, as by penſions, donations to hoſpitals, &c. and premiums to the ſocieties of agriculture. This archbiſhopric pays annually 15,000 ducats to the monks of the Eſcurial, beſides other penſions; and it is aſſerted, that there is not a biſhopric in Spain but hath ſomebody or other quartered upon it, and the ſecond rate benefices are believed to be in the ſame predicament. Out of the rich canonries and prebends are taken the penſions of the new order of knights of Carlos Tercero. The riches of the Spaniſh churches and convents are the unvarying objects of admiration to all travellers as well as natives; but there is a ſameneſs in them all, excepting that they differ in the degrees of treaſure and jewels they contain.

Language.] The ground-work of the Spaniſh language, like that of the Italian, is Latin; and it might be called a baſtard Latin, were it not for the terminations, and the exotic words introduced into it by the Moors and Goths, eſpecially the former It is at preſent a moſt majeſtic and expreſſive language: and it is remarkable, that foreigners who underſtand it the beſt, prize it the moſt. It makes but a poor figure even in the beſt tranſlators; and Cervantes ſpeaks almoſt as aukward Engliſh, as Shakſpeare does French. It may, however, be conſidered as a ſtandard tongue, having nearly retained its purity for upwards of 200 years. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre nueſtro, que eſtas en el cielo, ſanctificado ſe ul tu nombre; venga a nos el tu reyno; hagaſe tu voluntad, aſſi en la tierra como en el cielo; el pan nueſtro de cada dia da nos le oy; y perdona nis nueſtras deudas aſſi como nos otros perdonamos a nueſtros deudores; no nos dexes cair en la tentacion, mas libra nos de mal, porque tao es le reyno; y la potencia; y la gloria per los ſiglos.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Spain has not produced learned men in proportion to the excellent capacities of its natives. This defect may, in some measure, be owing to their indolence and bigotry, which prevents them from making that progress in the polite arts which they otherwise would: but the greatest impediment to literature in Spain, is the despotic nature of its government. Several old fathers of the church were Spaniards; and learning owes a great deal to Isidore, bishop of Seville, and cardinal Ximenes. Spain has likewise produced some excellent physicians. Such was the gloom of the Austrian government, that took place with the emperor, Charles V, that the inimitable Cervantes, the author of Don Quixote, born at Madrid, in 1549, listed in a station little superior to that of a common soldier, and died neglected, after fighting bravely for his country at the battle of Lepanto, in which he lost his left hand. His satire upon knight-errantry, in his adventures of Don Quixote, did as much service to his country by curing them of that ridiculous spirit, as it now does honour to his own memory. He was in prison for debt when he composed the first part of his history, and is perhaps to be placed at the head of moral and humorous satirists.

The Visions of Quevedo, and some other of his humorous and satirical pieces, having been translated into the English language, have rendered that author well known in this country. He was born at Madrid in the year 1570, and was one of the best writers of his age, excelling equally in verse and in prose. Besides his merit as a poet, he was well versed in the oriental languages, and possessed great erudition. His works are comprised in three volumes, 4to, two of which consist of poetry, and the third of pieces in prose. As a poet he excelled both in the serious and burlesque style, and was happy in a turn of humour similar to that which we admire in Butler and Swift.

Poetry was cultivated in Spain at an early period. After the Saracens had settled themselves in this kingdom, they introduced into it their own language, religion, and literature; and the oriental style of poetry very generally prevailed. Before this period, the Spaniards had addicted themselves much to Roman literature: but Alvaro, of Cordova, complains, that, in his time, the Spaniards had so totally forgotten the Latin tongue, and given the preference to Arabic, that it was difficult, even among a thousand people, to find one who could write a Latin letter.—The attachment of many of the inhabitants of Spain to oriental literature was then so great, that they could write Arabic with remarkable purity, and compose verses with as much fluency and elegance as the Arabians themselves. About this time, the Spanish Jews made a considerable figure in literature, which was promoted by masters from Babylon, where they had academies supported by themselves. In the year 967, Rabbi Moses, and his son Rabbi Enoch, having been taken by pirates, were sold as slaves at Cordova, and redeemed by their brethern, who established a school in that city, of which Rabbi Moses was appointed the head: that learned Jew was, however, desirous of returning back to his own country; but the Moorish king of Cordova would not give his consent, rejoicing that his Hebrew subjects had masters of their own religion at home, without being under the necessity of receiving them from a foreign university, and every indulgence was granted them with respect to their worship. In 1039, Rabbi Ezechias was put to death at Babylon, and the college over which he had presided was transferred to Cordova, from whence a number of Hebrew poets issued forth, who have been noticed by various learned writers. The Spanish Jews had also flourishing schools at Seville, Grenada, and Toledo; and from hence arose the numerous Hebrew proverbs, and modes

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of ſpeech, that have crept into the Caſtilian language, and form a conſpicuous part of its phraſeology. To theſe Jews the Spaniſh language is indebted for a curious verſion of the Hebrew books of the Old Teſtament, which was afterwards printed at Ferrara, in 1553, in a Gothic-Spaniſh letter.

The Spaniſh writers alſo boaſt of their Troubadours as high as the twelfth or thirteenth centuries, the Provençal and Galician dialects being then very prevalent. The marquis of Villena, who died in 1434, was the author of that famous work the *Arte de la Gaya Sciencia*, which comprehends a ſyſtem of poetry, rhetoric, and oratory, beſides deſcribing all the ceremonies of the Troubadours at their public exhibitions.—That nobleman was alſo the author of a tranſlation of the Æneid of Virgil into Spaniſh verſe. Juan de Mena, of Cordova, was alſo much celebrated as a poet in his own time: his poems have paſſed through a variety of editions, the firſt of which was printed at Saragoſſa in 1515. Juan de la Encina was alſo a poet of conſiderable merit: he tranſlated ſome of the Latin poems into Spaniſh, and publiſhed a piece on the art of poetry, and other works, which were printed at Saragoſſa, in 1516. Boſcan, Ercilla, Villegas, and other Spaniſh poets, alſo obtained great reputation in their own country. But the moſt diſtinguiſhed dramatic poet of this nation was Lopez de Vega, who was contemporary with our Shakſpeare. He poſſeſſed an imagination aſtoniſhingly fertile, and wrote with great facility; but in his dramatic works he diſregarded the unities, and adapted his works more to the taſte of the age, than to the rules of criticiſm. His lyric compoſitions, and fugitive pieces, with his proſe eſſays, form a collection of fifty volumes, beſides his dramatic works, which make twenty-ſix volumes more; exclufive of four hundred ſcriptural-dramatic pieces, called in Spain *Autos Sacramentales*. Calderon was alſo a dramatic writer of conſiderable note, but many of his plays are very licentious in their tendency.

Toſtatus, a divine, the moſt voluminous perhaps that ever wrote, was a Spaniard; but his works have been long diſtinguiſhed only by their bulk. Herrera, and ſome other hiſtorians, particularly De Solis, have ſhown great abilities in hiſtory, by inveſtigating the antiquities of America, and writing the hiſtory of its conqueſt by their countrymen.—Among the writers who have lately appeared in Spain, Father Feyjoo has been one of the moſt diſtinguiſhed. His performances diſplay great ingenuity, very extenſive reading, and uncommon liberality of ſentiment, eſpecially when his ſituation and country are conſidered. Many of his pieces have been tranſlated into Engliſh, and publiſhed in four volumes, 8vo. Don Francifco Perez Bayer, archdeacon of Valencia, and author of a Diſſertation on the Phœnician Language, may be placed in the firſt line of Spaniſh literati. Spain has likewiſe produced many travellers and voyagers to both the Indies, who are equally amuſing and inſtructive. If it ſhould happen the Spaniards could diſengage themſelves from their abſtracted metaphyſical turn of thinking, and from their preſent tyrannical form of government, they certainly would make a capital figure in literature. At preſent, it ſeems, that the common education of an Engliſh gentleman would conſtitute a man of learning in Spain; and ſhould he underſtand the Greek, he would be quite a phænomenon.

Some of the Spaniards have diſtinguiſhed themſelves in the polite arts; and not only the cities, but the palaces, eſpecially the Eſcurial, diſcover many ſtriking ſpecimens of their abilities as ſculptors and architects; Palomino, in an elaborate treatiſe on the art of painting, in two volumes, folio, has inſerted the lives of two hundred and thirty-three painters and ſculptors, who flouriſhed in Spain from the time of Ferdinand, the Catholic, to the concluſion of the reign of Philip IV. Amongſt the moſt eminent Spaniſh painters, were Velaſques; Murillo, who is commonly called the

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Spaniſh Vandyke; Ribeira; and Claudio Coello, whoſe ſtyle of painting was very ſimilar to that of Paul Veroneſe.

UNIVERSITIES.] In Spain are reckoned 24 univerſities, the chief of which is Salamanca, founded by Alphonſus, ninth king of Leon, in the year 1200. It contains 21 colleges, ſome of which are very magnificent. Moſt of the nobility of Spain ſend their ſons to be educated here. The reſt are, Seville, Grenada, Compoſtella, Toledo, Valladolid, Alcala, Siguenza, Valencia, Lerida, Hueſca, Saragoſſa, Tortoſa, Oſſuna, Onata, Candia, Barcelona, Murcia, Taragona, Baeza, Avila, Oriuela, Oviedo, and Palencia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, ARTIFICIAL AND NATURAL. The former of theſe conſiſt chiefly of Roman and Mooriſh antiquities. Near Segovia, a grand aqueduct, erected by Trajan, extends over a deep valley between two hills, and is ſupported by a double row of 159 arches. Other Roman aqueducts, theatres, and circi, are to be found at Terrago, and different parts of Spain. A ruinous watch-tower, near Cadiz, is vulgarly, but erroneouſly, thought to be one of the pillars of Hercules. Near the city of Salamanca are the remains of a Roman way, paved with large flat ſtones; it was continued to Merida, and from thence to Seville. At Toledo are the remains of an old Roman theatre, which is now converted into a church, ſaid to be one of the greateſt curioſities of antiquity. It is 600 feet in length, 500 in breadth, and of a proportionable height; the roof, which is amazingly bold and lofty, is ſupported by 350 pillars of fine marble, in ten rows, forming eleven ailes, in which are 366 altars, and 24 gates; every part being enriched and adorned with the moſt noble and coſtly ornaments. At Martorel, a large town, where much black lace is manufactured, is a very high bridge, built in 1768, out of the ruins of a decayed one that had exiſted 1985 years from its erection by Hannibal. At the north end is a triumphal arch or gateway, ſaid to have been raiſed by that general in honour of his father Hamilcar. It is almoſt entire, well proportioned and ſimple, without any kind of ornament, except a rim or two of hewn ſtone. Near Mulviedro (once the faithful Saguntum) deſtroyed by Hannibal, are ſome Roman remains--as the ruins of the theatre, an exact ſemicircle about 82 yards diameter: ſome of the galleries are cut out of the rock, and 9000 perſons might attend the exhibitions, without inconvenience.

The Mooriſh antiquities are rich and magnificent. Among the moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe is the royal palace of the Alhambra, at Grenada, which is one of the moſt entire as well as the moſt ſtately of any of the edifices which the Moors erected in Spain. It was built in 1280, by the ſecond Mooriſh king of Grenada; and, in 1492, in the reign of their eighteenth king, was taken by the Spaniards. It is ſituated on a hill, which is aſcended by a road bordered with hedges of double or imperial myrtles, and rows of elms. On this hill, within the walls of the Alhambra, the emperor, Charles V, began a new palace in 1568, which was never finiſhed, though the ſhell of it remains. It is built of yellow ſtone: the outſide forms a ſquare of one hundred and ninety feet. The inſide is a grand circular court, with a portico of the Tuſcan, and a gallery of the Doric order, each ſupported by thirty-two columns, made of as many ſingle pieces of marble. The grand entrance is ornamented with columns of jaſper, on the pedeſtals of which are repreſentations of battles, in marble baſſo relievo. The Alhambra itſelf is a maſs of many houſes and towers, walled round, and built of large ſtones of different dimenſions. Almoſt all the rooms have ſtucco walls and ceilings, ſome carved, ſome painted, and ſome gilt, and covered with various Arabic ſentences—the

moſt

moſt curious place within, that perhaps exiſts in Europe. Here are ſeveral baths, the walls, floors, and cielings of whichare of white marble. The gardens abound with orange and lemon trees, pomegranates, and myrtles. At the end of the gardens is another place called Ginaraliph, ſituated on a more elevated ſtation than the Alhambra. From the balconies of this palace is one of the fineſt proſpects in Europe, over the whole fertile plain of Grenada, bounded by the ſnowy mountains. The Moors to this day regret the loſs of Grenada, and ſtill offer up prayers to God for the recovery of the city. Many other noble monuments, erected in the Mooriſh times, remain in Spain; ſome of them in tolerable preſervation, and others exhibiting ſuperb ruins.

Among the natural curioſities, the medicinal ſprings, and ſome noiſy lakes, form a principal part; but we muſt not forget the river Guadiana, which, like the Mole, in England, runs under-ground, and then is ſaid to emerge. The royal cabinet of natural hiſtory, at Madrid, was opened to the public, by his majeſty's orders, in 1775. Every thing in this collection is ranged with neatneſs and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, beſides being ſhown privately to ſtrangers of rank. The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious ſtones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect; but the collection of birds and beaſts at preſent is not large, though it may be expected to improve apace, if care be taken to get the productions of the Spaniſh American colonies. Here is alſo a curious collection of vaſes, baſons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the fineſt agates, amethyſts, rock cryſtals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, ſet with cameos, entaglios, &c. in elegant taſte, and of very fine workmanſhip, ſaid to have been brought from France by Philip V. The cabinet alſo contains ſpecimens of Mexican and Peruvian vaſes and utenſils.

In blowing up the rock of Gibraltar, many pieces of bones and teeth have been found incorporated with the ſtone, ſome of which have been brought to England, and depoſited in the Britiſh Muſeum. On the weſt ſide of the mountain, is the cave called St. Michael's, eleven hundred and ten feet above the horizon. Many pillars, of various ſizes, ſome of them two feet in diameter, have been formed in it by the droppings of water, which have petrified in falling. The water perpetually drips from the roof, and forms an infinite number of ſtalactitæ, of a whitiſh colour, compoſed of ſeveral coats or cruſts, and which, as well as the pillars, continually increaſe in bulk, and may probably in time fill the whole cavern. From the ſummit of the rock, in clear weather, not only the town of Gibraltar may be ſeen, but the bay, the ſtraits, the towns of St. Roque and Algeſiras, and the Alpuxara mountains; mount Abyla, on the African ſhore, with its ſnowy top, the cities of Ceuta, Tangier, and great part of the Barbary coaſt.

CHIEF CITIES, &c.] Madrid, though unfortified, it being only ſurrounded by a mud wall, is the capital of Spain, and contains about 300,000 inhabitants. It is ſurrounded with very lofty mountains, whoſe ſummits are frequently covered with ſnow. It is well paved and lighted, and ſome of the ſtreets are ſpacious and handſome. The houſes of Madrid are of brick, and are laid out chiefly for ſhow, conveniency being little conſidered: thus you will uſually paſs through two or three large apartments of no uſe, in order to come at a ſmall room at the end where the family ſit. The houſes in general look more like priſons than the habitations of people at their liberty: the windows, beſides having a balcony, being grated with iron bars, particularly the lower range, and ſometimes all the reſt. Separate families generally inhabit the ſame houſe, as in

Paris

Paris and Edinburgh. Foreigners are very much diſtreſſed for lodgings at Madrid, as the Spaniards are not fond of taking ſtrangers into their houſes, eſpecially if they are not catholics. Its greateſt excellency is the cheapneſs of its proviſions; but neither tavern, coffee-houſe, nor newſ-paper, excepting the Madrid Gazette, are to be found in the whole city. The royal palace ſtands on an eminence, on the weſt ſide of the city; it is a ſpacious magnificent ſtructure, conſiſting of three courts, and commands a very fine proſpect. Each of the fronts is 470 feet in length, and 100 high, and there is no palace in Europe fitted up with greater magnificence; the great audience-chamber eſpecially, which is 120 feet long, and hung with crimſon velvet richly embroidered with gold. Ornamented alſo with 12 looking-glaſſes made at St. Ildefonſo, each ten feet high; with 12 tables of the fineſt Spaniſh marbles. The other royal palaces round it are deſigned for hunting ſeats, or houſes of retirement for their kings. Some of them contain fine paintings and good ſtatues. The chief of thoſe palaces are the Buen Retiro (now ſtripped of all its beſt pictures and furniture) Caſa del Campo, Aranjuez, and St. Ildefonſo.

A late traveller has repreſented the palace of Aranjuez, and its gardens, as extremely delightful. Here is alſo a park many leagues round, cut acroſs in different parts, by alleys of two, three, and even four miles extent. Each of thoſe alleys is formed by two double rows of elm-trees; one double row on the right, and one on the left, which renders the ſhade thicker. The alleys are wide enough to admit of four coaches abreaſt, and betwixt each double row there is a narrow channel, through which runs a ſtream of water. Between thoſe alleys there are thick groves of ſmaller trees of various kinds, and thouſands of deer and wild-boars wander there at large, beſides numberleſs hares, rabbits, pheaſants, partridges, and ſeveral other kinds of birds. The river Tagus runs through this place, and divides it into two unequal parts. The central point of this great park is the king's palace, which is partly ſurrounded by the garden, and is exceedingly pleaſant, adorned with fountains and ſtatues, and it alſo contains a vaſt variety of the moſt beautiful flowers, both American and European. As to the palace of Aranjuez itſelf, it is rather an elegant than a magnificent building.

The palace of St. Ildefonſo is built of brick, plaſtered and painted, but no part of the architecture is agreeable. It is two ſtories high, and the garden-front has thirty-one windows, and twelve rooms in a ſuite. The gardens are on a ſlope, on the top of which is a great reſervoir of water, called here *El Mar*, the ſea, which ſupplies the fountains; this reſervoir is furniſhed from the torrents which pour down the mountains. The waterworks are excellent, and far ſurpaſs thoſe at Verſailles. The great entry of the palace is ſomewhat ſimilar to that of Verſailles, and with a large iron paliſade. In the gardens are twenty-ſeven fountains; the baſons are of white marble, and the ſtatues, many of which are excellent, are of lead, bronzed and gilt. Theſe gardens are in the formal French ſtyle, but ornamented with ſixty-one very fine marble ſtatues, as large as the life, with twenty-eight marble vaſes, and twenty leaded vaſes gilt. The upper part of the palace contains many valuable paintings, and the lower part antique ſtatues, buſts, and baſſo relievos.

The pride of Spain, however, is the Eſcurial; and the natives ſay, perhaps with juſtice, that the building of it coſt more than that of any other palace in Europe. The deſcription of this palace forms a ſizeable quarto volume, and it is ſaid, that Philip II, who was its founder, expended upon it ſix millions of ducats. It contains a prodigious number of windows, 200 in the weſt front, and in the eaſt 366, and the apartments are decorated with an aſtoniſhing variety of paintings, ſculpture, tapeſtry,

tapeſtry, ornaments of gold and ſilver, marble, jaſper, gems, and other curious ſtones. This building, beſides its palace, contains a church, large, and richly ornamented, a mauſoleum, cloiſters, a convent, a college, and a library, containing about thirty thouſand volumes; but it is more particularly valuable for the Arabic and Greek manuſcripts with which it is enriched. Above the ſhelves are paintings in freſco, by Barthelemi Carducho, the ſubjects of which are taken from ſacred or profane hiſtory, or have relation to the ſciences of which the ſhelves below preſent to us the elements. Thus, the council of Nice is repreſented above the books which treat of theology; the death of Archimedes at the ſiege of Syracuſe, indicates thoſe which relate to the mathematics; and Cicero pronouncing his oration in favour of Rabirius, the works relative to eloquence and the bar. A very ſingular circumſtance in this library may be agreeable to the curious reader to know, which is, that, on viewing the books, he will find them placed the contrary way, ſo that the edges of the leaves are outwards, and contains their titles written on them. The reaſon for this cuſtom is, that Arius Montanus, a learned Spaniard of the ſixteenth century, whoſe library had ſerved as a foundation for that of the Eſcurial, had all his books placed and inſcribed in that manner, which no doubt appeared to him to be the moſt commodious method of arranging them; that he had introduced his own method into the Eſcurial; and ſince his time, and for the ſake of uniformity, it had been followed with reſpect to the books afterwards added. Here are alſo large apartments for all kinds of artiſts and mechanics; noble walks, with extenſive parks and gardens, beautified with fountains and coſtly ornaments. The fathers that live in the convent are 200, and they have an annual revenue of 12,000l. The mauſoleum, or burying place of the kings and queens of Spain, is called the pantheon, becauſe it is built upon the plan of that temple at Rome, as the church to which it belongs is upon the model of St. Peter's. It is 36 feet diameter, incruſted with fine marbles.

Allowing to the Spaniards their full eſtimate of the incredible ſums beſtowed on this palace, and on its furniture, ſtatues, paintings, columns, vaſes, and the like decorations, which are moſt amazingly rich and beautiful, yet we hazard nothing in ſaying, that the fabric itſelf diſcovers a bad taſte upon the whole. The conceit of building it in the form of a gridiron, becauſe St. Laurence, to whom it is dedicated, was broiled on ſuch an utenſil, and multiplying the ſame figure through its principal ornaments upon the doors, windows, altars, rituals, and ſacerdotal habits, could have been formed only in the brain of a taſteleſs bigot, ſuch as Philip II, who erected it to commemorate the victory he obtained over the French (but by the aſſiſtance of the Engliſh forces) at St. Quintin, on St. Laurence's day, in the year 1557. The apartment where the king reſides forms the handle of the gridiron. The building is a long ſquare of 640 feet by 580. The height of the roof is 60 feet. It has been enriched and adorned by his ſucceſſors; but its outſide has a gloomy appearance, and the inſide is compoſed of different ſtructures, ſome of which are maſterpieces of architecture, but forming a diſagreeable whole. It muſt, however, be confeſſed, that the pictures and ſtatues that have found admiſſion here, are excellent in their kind, and ſome of them not to be equalled even in Italy itſelf.

Cadiz is the great emporium of Spaniſh commerce. It ſtands on an iſland ſeparated from the continent of Andaluſia, without the Straits of Gibraltar, by a very narrow arm of the ſea, over which a fortified bridge is thrown, and joins it to the main land. The entrance into the bay is about

500 fathoms wide, and guarded by two forts, called the Puntals. The entrance has never been of late years attempted by the Engliſh in their wars with Spain, becauſe of the vaſt intereſt our merchants have in the treaſures there, which they could not reclaim from the captors. The ſtreets are narrow, ill paved, and filthy, and full of rats in the night. The houſes lofty with flat roofs, and few are without a turret for a view of the ſea. The population is reckoned at 140,000 inhabitants, of which 12,000 are French, and as many Italians. The cathedral hath been already 50 years building, and the roof is not half finiſhed. The environs are beautifully rural.

Cordova is now an inconſiderable place; ſtreets crooked and dirty, and but few of the public or private buildings conſpicuous for their archetecture. The palaces of the inquiſition and of the biſhops are extenſive and well ſituated. The cathedral was formerly a moſque, divided into ſeventeen ailes by rows of columns of various marbles, and is very rich in plate; four of the ſilver candleſticks coſt 850l. a-piece. The revenue of the ſee amounts to 3500l. per ann. but as the biſhops cannot deviſe by will, all they die poſſeſſed of eſcheats to the king.

Seville, the Julia of the Romans, is, next to Madrid, the largeſt city in Spain, but is greatly decayed both in riches and population. The ſhape is circular, and the walls ſeem of Mooriſh conſtruction; it circumference is five miles and a half. The ſuburb of Triana is as large as many towns, and remarkable for its gloomy Gothic caſtle, where, in 1481, the inquiſition was firſt eſtabliſhed in Spain. Its manufactures in wool and ſilk, which formerly amounted to 16,000, are now reduced to 400; and its great office of commerce to Spaniſh America is removed to Cadiz. The cathedral of Seville is a fine Gothic building, with a curious ſteeple or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at the top, called La Giralda, which turns round with the wind, and which is referred to in Don Quixote. This ſteeple is reckoned one of the greateſt curioſities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London; but the cathedral, in Mr. Swinburne's opinion, is by no means equal to York-minſter for lightneſs, elegance, or Gothic delicacy. The firſt clock made in the kingdom was ſet up in this cathedral, in the year 1400, in the preſence of King Henry III. The proſpect of the country round this city, beheld from the ſteeple of the cathedral, is extremely delightful.

Barcelona, formerly Barcino, ſaid to be founded by Hamilcar Barcas, is a large circular trading city, containing 15,000 houſes, ſituated on the Mediterranean, facing Minorca, and is ſaid to be the handſomeſt place in Spain; the houſes are lofty and plain, and the ſtreets well lighted and paved. The citadel is ſtrong, and the place and inhabitants famous for the ſiege they ſuſtained, in 1714, againſt a formidable army, when deſerted both by England and the emperor, for whom they had taken up arms. The number of inhabitants is ſuppoſed to be nearly 150,000, and they ſupply Spain with moſt of the clothing and arms for the troops. A ſingular cuſtom prevails among them on the 1ſt of November, the eve of All Souls; they run about from houſe to houſe to eat cheſnuts, believing that for every cheſnut they ſwallow, with proper faith and unction, they ſhall deliver a ſoul out of purgatory.

Valencia is a large and almoſt circular city, with lofty walls. The ſtreets are crooked and narrow, and not paved; the houſes ill built and filthy, and moſt of the churches tawdry. Prieſts, nuns, and friars, of every dreſs, ſwarm in this city, whoſe inhabitants are computed at 80,000. Its archbiſhopric is one of the beſt in Spain, to the amount of 40,000l. ſterling a year.

Carthagena

Carthagena is a large city, but has very few good ſtreets, and fewer remarkable buildings. The port is very complete, formed by nature in the figure of a heart, and the arſenal is a ſpacious ſquare, ſouth-weſt of the town, with 40 pieces of cannon to defend it towards the ſea. When Mr. Swinburne viſited it, in 1775, there were 800 Spaniſh criminals, and 600 Barbary ſlaves, working at the pumps, to keep the docks dry, &c. and treated with great inhumanity. The crimes for which the Spaniards were ſent there, deſerved indeed exemplary puniſhments.

Grenada ſtands on two hills, and the ancient palace of the Alhambra crowns the double ſummit between two rivers, the Douro, and the Xenil. The former glories of this city are paſſed away with its old inhabitants; the ſtreets are now filthy, and the aqueducts crumbled to duſt, and its trade loſt. Of 50,000 inhabitants, only 18,000 are reckoned uſeful; the ſurplus is made up of clergy, lawyers, children, and beggars. The amphitheatre for bull-feaſts is built of ſtone, and one of the beſt in Spain, and the environs of the city are ſtill pleaſing and healthful.

Bilboa is ſituated on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, and is about two leagues from the ſea. It contains about eight hundred houſes, with a large ſquare by the water ſide, well ſhaded with pleaſant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river; where there are great numbers of houſes and gardens, which form a moſt pleaſing proſpect, particularly in ſailing up the river; for, beſides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appears as an amphitheatre, which enlivens the landſcape, and completes the ſcenery. The houſes are ſolid and lofty, and the ſtreets well paved and level; and the water is ſo conveyed into the ſtreets, that they may be waſhed at pleaſure; which renders Bilboa one of the neateſt towns in Europe.

Malaga is an ancient city, and not leſs remarkable for its opulence and extenſive commerce, than for the luxuriance of its ſoil, yielding in great abundance the moſt delicious fruits; whilſt its rugged mountains afford thoſe luſcious grapes, which give ſuch reputation to the Malaga wine, known in England by the name of Mountain. The city is large and populous, and of a circular form, ſurrounded with a double wall, ſtrengthened by ſtately towers, and has nine gates. A Mooriſh caſtle on the point of a rock commands every part of it. The ſtreets are narrow, and the moſt remarkable building in it is a ſtupendous cathedral, begun by Philip II, ſaid to be as large as that of St. Paul's, in London. The biſhop's income is 16,000l. ſterling.

The city of Salamanca is of a circular form, built on three hills and two vallies, and on every ſide ſurrounded with proſpects of fine houſes, noble ſeats, gardens, orchards, fields, and diſtant villages; and is ancient, large, rich, and populous. There are ten gates to this city, and it contains twenty-five churches, twenty-five convents of friars, and the ſame number of nunneries. The moſt beautiful part of this city is the great ſquare, built about forty years ago. The houſes are of three ſtories, and all of equal height and exact ſymmetry, with iron balconies, and a ſtone baluſtrade on the top of them: the lower part is arched, which forms a piazza all round the ſquare, one of two hundred and ninety-three feet on each ſide. Over ſome of the arches are medallions, with buſts of the kings of Spain, and of ſeveral eminent men, in ſtone baſſo relievo, among which are thoſe of Ferdinando Cortez, Francis Pizarro, Davila, and Cid Ruy. In this ſquare the bull-fights are exhibited for three days only, in the month of June. The river Tormes runs by this city, and has a bridge over it of twenty-five arches, built by the Romans, and yet entire.

Toledo is one of the moſt ancient cities in Spain, and during ſeveral centuries it held the rank of its metropolis. But the neighbourhood of Madrid has by degrees ſtripped it of its numerous inhabitants, and it would have been almoſt entirely deſerted but for its cathedral, the income of which being in great part ſpent here, contributes chiefly to the maintenance of the few thouſands that are left, and aſſiſts, in ſome degree, thoſe ſmall manufactures of ſword-blades and ſilk-ſtuffs that are eſtabliſhed in this city. It is now exceedingly ill-built, poor, and mean, and the ſtreets very ſteep.

Burgos was the ancient capital of the kingdom of Caſtile, but now in obſcurity. The cathedral is one of the moſt magnificent ſtructures, of the Gothic kind, now in Europe. Its form is exactly the ſame as that of York minſter, and on the eaſt end is an octagon building exactly like the chapter-houſe at York.

Gibraltar, once a celebrated town and fortreſs of Andaluſia, is at preſent in poſſeſſion of Great Britain. Till the arrival of the Saracens in Spain, which took place in the year 711, or 712, the rock of Gibraltar went by the name of *Mons Calpe*. On their arrival, a fortreſs was built upon it, and it obtained the name of *Gibel Tarif*, from the name of their general, and thence Gibraltar. It was in the poſſeſſion of the Spaniards and Moors by turns, till it was taken from the former by a combined fleet of Engliſh and Dutch ſhips, under the command of ſir George Rooke, in 1704; and this rather through accident than any thing elſe. The prince of Heſſe, with 1800 men, landed on the iſthmus, but an attack on that ſide was found to be impracticable, on account of the ſteepneſs of the rock. The fleet fired 15,000 ſhot, without making any impreſſion on the works, ſo that the fortreſs ſeems to be equally impregnable both to the Britiſh and Spaniards, except by famine. At laſt, a party of ſailors, having got merry with grog, rowed cloſe under the New Mole in their boats; and as they ſaw that the garriſon, which conſiſted only of 100 men, did not mind them, they were encouraged to attempt a landing; and having mounted the mole, hoiſted a red jacket as a ſignal of poſſeſſion. This being immediately obſerved from the fleet, more boats and ſailors were ſent out, who, in like manner, having aſcended the works, got poſſeſſion of a battery, and ſoon obliged the town to ſurrender. After many fruitleſs attempts to recover it, it was confirmed to the Engliſh, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. Repeated attempts have been ſince made to wreſt it from England, but without ſucceſs; the laſt war hath made it more famous than ever, when it underwent a long ſiege againſt the united forces of Spain and France, by land and ſea, and was gallantly defended by general Elliot and his garriſon, to the great loſs and diſgrace of the aſſailants; though it muſt be granted, the place is by nature almoſt impregnable. Near 300 pieces of cannon, of different bores, and chiefly braſs, which were ſunk before the port in the floating batteries, have been raiſed, and ſold, to be diſtributed among the garriſon. It is a commodious port, and formed naturally for commanding the paſſage of the Straits, or, in other words, the entrance into the Mediterranean and Levant ſeas. But the road is neither ſafe againſt an enemy nor ſtorms: the bay is about twenty leagues in circumference. The ſtraits are 24 miles long, and 15 broad; through which ſets a current from the Atlantic ocean into the Mediterranean, and for the ſtemming of it a briſk gale is required. The town was neither large nor beautiful, and in the laſt ſiege was totally deſtroyed by the enemies' bombs, but on account of its fortifications, is eſteemed the key of Spain, and is always furniſhed with a garriſon well provided for its defence. The harbour is formed by a mole, which is well

fortified

fortified and planted with guns. Gibraltar is acceſſible on the land ſide only by a narrow paſſage between the rock and the ſea, but that is walled and fortified both by art and nature, and ſo incloſed by high ſteep hills, as to be almoſt inacceſſible that way. It has but two gates on that ſide, and as many towards the ſea. Acroſs this iſthmus the Spaniards have drawn a fortified line, chiefly with a view to hinder the garriſon of Gibraltar from having any intercourſe with the country behind them; notwithſtanding which they carry on a clandeſtine trade, particularly in tobacco, of which the Spaniards are exceedingly fond. The garriſon is, however, confined within very narrow limits; and, as the ground produces ſcarcely any thing, all their proviſions are brought them either from England or from Ceuta, on the oppoſite coaſt of Barbary. Formerly, Gibraltar was entirely under military government; but that power producing thoſe abuſes which are naturally attendant on it, the parliament thought proper to erect it into a body corporate, and the civil power is now lodged in its magiſtrates.

The chief iſlands belonging to Spain in Europe, are thoſe of Majorca and Ivica, of which we have nothing particular to ſay. Minorca, which was taken by the Engliſh, in 1708, under general Stanhope, and confirmed to Great Britain by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713, was re-taken by the Spaniards the laſt war, February 15, 1782, and is now become a Spaniſh iſland again, containing about 27,000 inhabitants.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] The Spaniards, unhappily for themſelves, make gold and ſilver the chief branches both of their exports and imports. They import it from America, from whence they export it to other countries of Europe. Cadiz is the chief emporium of this commerce. "Hither (ſays Mr. Anderſon, in his Hiſtory of Commerce) other European nations ſend their merchandiſe to be ſhipped off in Spaniſh bottoms for America, ſheltered (or, as our old Engliſh phraſe has it, coloured) under the names of the Spaniſh factors. Thoſe foreign nations have here their agents and correſpondents; and the conſuls of thoſe nations make a conſiderable figure. Cadiz has been ſaid to have the fineſt ſtorehouſes and magazines for commerce of any city in Europe; and to it the fleets and galleons regularly import the treaſures of Spaniſh America. The proper Spaniſh merchandiſe exported from Cadiz to America are of no great value; but the duty on the foreign merchandiſe ſent thither would yield a great revenue (and conſequently the profits of merchants and their agents would ſink) were it not for the many fraudulent practices for eluding thoſe duties."

At St. Ildefonſo the glaſs manufacture is carried on to a degree of perfection unknown in England. The largeſt mirrors are made in a braſs frame, 162 inches long, 93 wide, and ſix deep, weighing near nine tons. Theſe are deſigned wholly for the royal palaces, and for preſents from the king. Yet even for ſuch purpoſes it is ill placed, and proves a devouring monſter in a country where proviſions are dear, fuel ſcarce, and carriage exceedingly expenſive. Here is alſo a royal manufacture of linen, employing about 15 looms; by which it is ſaid the king is a conſiderable loſer.

In the city of Valencia there is a very reſpectable ſilk manufacture, in which five thouſand looms, and three hundred ſtocking frames, give employment to upwards of 20,000 of the inhabitants, without enumerating thoſe who exerciſe profeſſions relative to the manufacture, ſuch as perſons who prepare the wood and iron work of ſo great a number of machines, or ſpin, wind, or dye the ſilk. At Alcora, in the neighbourhood of Valencia, a manufacture of porcelain has been ſucceſsfully eſtabliſhed; and

they very much excel in painted tiles. In Valencia, their beſt apartments are floored with theſe, and are remarkable for neatneſs, for coolneſs, and for elegance. They are ſtronger and much more beautiful than thoſe of Holland.

At Carthagena they make great quantities of the *eſparto* ropes and cables, ſome of them ſpun like hemp, and others plaited. Both operations are performed with ſingular rapidity. Theſe cables are excellent, becauſe they float on the ſurface of the water, and are not therefore liable to be cut by the rocks on a foul coaſt. The eſparto ruſh makes good mats for houſes, *alpargates*, or ſhort trowſers and bulkins for peaſants, and latterly it has been ſpun into fine thread for the purpoſe of making cloth. If properly encouraged, there is no doubt that the manufacture may be brought to ſuch perfection, as to make this once uſeleſs ruſh a ſource of abundant wealth to the ſouthern provinces of Spain, for it is the peculiar and natural production of all the high and uncultivated mountains of the ſouth.

As to the hempen cordage which is made in Spain, for the uſe of the royal navy, M. de Bourgoanne obſerves, that it is better and more durable than that of the principal dock-yards and magazines in Europe; becauſe, in combing the hemp, all the towy part we leave in it was taken out, and made uſe of in caulking, whence reſults the double advantage of more ſolid cordage, and the better caulking of veſſels. Another cuſtom in our rope-yards, which the Spaniards have avoided adopting, is the tarring the cordage and keeping it a long time piled up. In this ſtate the tar ferments, and eats the hemp, and the cordage is extremely apt to break after being uſed but a ſhort ſpace of time.

The Spaniards formerly obtained their hemp from the north; at preſent they are able to do without the aſſiſtance, in this article, of any other nation. The kingdom of Grenada already furniſhes them with the greateſt part of the hemp they uſe, and, in caſe of need, they may have recourſe to Aragon and Navarre. All the ſailcloth and cordage in the magazines at Cadiz are made with Spaniſh hemp; the texture of which is even, cloſe, and ſolid.

The moſt important production of this country, and the moſt valuable article of commerce, is barilla, a ſpecies of pot-aſh, procured by burning a great variety of plants almoſt peculiar to the kingdoms of Valencia and Murcia, ſuch as *joza*, *algazul*, *ſuzon*, *ſajennes*, *ſalicornia*, with *barilla*. It is uſed for making ſoap, for bleaching, and for glaſs. All the nations in Europe, by the combuſtion of various vegetable ſubſtances, make ſome kind of pot-aſh; but the ſuperior excellence of the barilla has hitherto ſecured the preference. The country producing it is about ſixty leagues in length, and eight in breadth, on the borders of the Mediterranean. The quantity exported annually from Spain (according to the teſtimonies of both Mr. Townſend, and M. de Bourgoanne) is about a hundred and fifty quintals, moſt of which are ſent to France and England, and a ſmall quantity to Genoa and Venice.

Spain is one of the richeſt countries in Europe in ſalt-petre, a moſt important article of commerce. The account of this ſurprizing manufacture we ſhall abridge from Mr. Townſend. "I obſerved," ſays he, "a large enclоſure, with a number of mounts of about twenty feet high, at regular diſtances from each other. Theſe were collected from the rubbiſh of the city of Madrid, and the ſcrapings of the highways. They had remained all the winter piled up in the manner in which I found them. At this time men were employed in wheeling them away, and ſpreading abroad the earth to the thickneſs of about one foot, whilſt others were

turning

turning what had been previouſly expoſed to the influence of the ſun and air. The preceding ſummer theſe heaps had been waſhed, and being thus expoſed, would yield the ſame quantity of ſalt again, and as far as appears, the produce would never fail; but, after having been waſhed, no ſalt-petre can be obtained without a ſubſequent expoſure. Some of this earth they can lixiviate once a year, ſome they have waſhed twenty times in the laſt ſeven years, and ſome they have ſubjected to this operation fifteen times in one year, judging always by their eye when they may waſh it to advantage, and by their taſte if it has yielded a lixivium of a proper ſtrength; from which, by evaporating the water in boiling, they obtain the ſalt-petre."

The other manufactures of Spain are chiefly of wool, copper, and hardware. Great efforts have been made by the government, to prevent the other European nations from reaping the chief advantage of the American commerce; but theſe never can be ſucceſsful, till a ſpirit of induſtry is awakened among the natives, ſo as to enable them to ſupply their American poſſeſſions with their own commodities and merchandiſe. Meanwhile, the good faith and facility with which the Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other nations, carry on this contraband trade, render them greater gainers by it than the Spaniards themſelves are, the clear profits ſeldom amounting to leſs than 20 per cent. This evidently makes it an important concern, that thoſe immenſe riches ſhould belong to the Spaniards, rather than to any active European nation: but I ſhall have occaſion to touch on this ſubject in the account of America.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] Spain, from being the moſt free, is now the moſt deſpotic kingdom in Europe; and the poverty which is ſo viſible in moſt parts of the country is in a great degree the reſult of its government, in the adminiſtration of which no proper attention is paid to the intereſts and welfare of the people. The monarchy is hereditary, and females are capable of ſucceſſion. It has even been queſtioned, whether his catholic majeſty may not bequeath his crown, upon his demiſe, to any branch of the royal family he pleaſes. It is at leaſt certain, that the houſe of Bourbon mounted the throne of Spain in virtue of the laſt will of Charles II.

The cortes, or parliaments of the kingdom, which formerly, eſpecially in Caſtile, had greater power and privileges than thoſe of England, are now aboliſhed; but ſome faint remains of their conſtitution are ſtill diſcernible in the government, though all of them are ineffectual, and under the control of the king.

The privy council, which is compoſed of a number of noblemen, or grandees, nominated by the king, ſits only to prepare matters, and to digeſt papers for the cabinet council, or junto, which conſiſts of the firſt ſecretary of ſtate, and three or four more named by the king, and in them reſides the direction of all the executive part of government. The council of war takes cogniſance of military affairs only. The council of Caſtile is the higheſt law tribunal of the kingdom. The ſeveral courts of the royal audiences, are thoſe of Galicia, Seville, Majorca, the Canaries, Saragoſſa, Valencia, and Barcelona. Theſe judge primarily in all cauſes within fifteen miles of their reſpective cities or capitals, and receive appeals from inferior juriſdictions. Beſides theſe there are many ſubordinate tribunals, for the police, the finances, and other branches of buſineſs.

The government of Spaniſh America forms a ſyſtem of itſelf, and is delegated to viceroys, and other magiſtrates, who are in their reſpective diſtricts almoſt abſolute. A council for the Indies is eſtabliſhed in Old

Spain, and conſiſts of a governor, four ſecretaries, and twenty-two counſellers, beſides officers. Their deciſion is final in matters relating to America. The members are generally choſen from the viceroys and magiſtrates who have ſerved in that country. The two great viceroyalties of Peru and Mexico are ſo conſiderable, that they are ſeldom truſted to one perſon for more than three years; but they are thought ſufficient to make his fortune in that time.

The foreign poſſeſſions of the crown of Spain, beſides thoſe in America, are the towns of Ceuta, Oran, and Mazulquiver, on the coaſt of Barbary, in Africa; and the iſlands of St. Lazaro, the Phillipines, and Ladrones, in Aſia.

REVENUES.] The revenues ariſing to the king from Old Spain, yearly amount to 5,000,000l ſterling, though ſome ſay eight; and they form the ſureſt ſupport of his government. His American income, it is true, is immenſe, but it is generally, in a manner, imbezzled or anticipated before it arrives in Old Spain. The king has a fifth of all the ſilver mines that are worked, but little of it comes into his coffers. He falls upon means, however, in caſe of a war, or any public emergency, to ſequeſter into his own hands great part of the American treaſures belonging to his ſubjects, who never complain, becauſe they are always punctually repaid, with intereſt. The finances of his preſent catholic majeſty are in excellent order, and on a better footing, both for himſelf and his people, than thoſe of any of his predeceſſors.

As to the taxes, from whence the internal revenues ariſe, they are various, arbitrary, and ſo much ſuited to conveniency, that we cannot fix them at any certainty. They fall upon all kinds of goods, houſes, lands, timber, and proviſions; the clergy and military orders are likewiſe taxed.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The land forces of the crown of Spain, in time of peace, are never fewer than 70,000; but in caſe of war, they amount, without prejudice to the kingdom, to 110,000. The great dependence of the king, however, is upon his Walloon or foreign guards. His preſent catholic majeſty has been at great care and expence to raiſe a powerful marine; and his fleet in Europe and America at preſent exceeds ſeventy ſhips of the line. All along the coaſt of Spain are watch-towers from mile to mile, with lights and guards at night, ſo that from Cadiz to Barcelona, and from Bilboa to Ferrol, the whole kingdom may be ſoon alarmed in caſe of an invaſion.

ROYAL ARMS, TITLES, NOBILITY, AND ORDERS.] Spain formerly comprehended twelve kingdoms; all of which, with ſeveral others, were, by name, entered into the royal titles, ſo that they amounted in all to about 32. This abſurd cuſtom is ſtill occaſionally continued, but the king is now generally contented with the title of His Catholic Majeſty. The kings of Spain are inaugurated by the delivery of a ſword, without being crowned. Their ſignature never mentions their name, but, I THE KING. Their eldeſt ſon is called prince of Aſturias, and their younger children of both ſexes, are, by way of diſtinction, called infants or infantas, that is, children.

The armorial bearings of the kings of Spain, like their title, is loaded with the arms of all their kingdoms. It is now a ſhield, divided into four quarters, of which the uppermoſt on the right hand and the loweſt on the left, contain a caſtle, or, with three towers, for Caſtile; and in the uppermoſt on the left, and the loweſt on the right, are three lions gules, for Leon; with three lilies in the centre for Anjou.

The general name for theſe Spaniſh nobility and gentry, who are unmixed with the Mooriſh blood, is Hidalgo. They are divided into princes, dukes,

dukes, marquiſſes, counts, viſcounts, and other inferior titles. Such as are created grandees, may ſtand covered before the king, and are treated with princely diſtinctions. A grandee cannot be apprehended without the king's order; and cardinals, archbiſhops, ambaſſadors, knights of the Golden Fleece, and certain other great dignitaries, both in church and ſtate, have the privilege, as well as the grandees, to appear covered before the king.

The "Order of the *Golden Fleece*," particularly deſcribed before in the orders of Germany, is generally conferred on princes and ſovereign dukes; but the Spaniſh branch of it hath many French and Italian nobility; there are no commanderies or revenues annexed to it.

The "Order of *St. James*," or *St. Jago de Compoſtella*, is the richeſt of all the orders of Spain. It was divided into two branches, each under a grand maſter, but the office of both was given, by pope Alexander VI, to the kings of Spain and Portugal, as grand-maſter in their reſpective dominions. The order is highly eſteemed in Spain, and only conferred on perſons of noble families. The ſame may be ſaid of the "Order of *Calatrava*," firſt inſtituted by Sanchio, king of Toledo: it took its name from the caſtle of Calatrava, which was taken from the Moors, and here began the order, which became very powerful. Their number, influence, and poſſeſſions, were ſo conſiderable as to excite the jealouſy of the crown, to which, at length, their revenues, and the office of grand-maſter, were annexed, by pope Innocent VIII. The celebrated "Order of *Alcantara*," derived its origin from the order of St. Julian, or of the Pear-tree; but after Alcantara was taken from the Moors, and made the chief ſeat of the order, they aſſumed the name of knights of the order of Alcantara, and laid aſide the old device of a pear-tree. This order is highly eſteemed, and conferred only on perſons of ancient and illuſtrious families. The "Order of the *Lady of Mercy*," is ſaid to have been inſtituted by James I, king of Aragon, about the year 1218, on account of a vow made by him to the Virgin Mary, during his captivity in France, and was deſigned for the redemption of captives from the Moors, in which they expended large ſums of money. It was firſt confined to men, but a lady of Barceiona afterwards got women included in it. This order poſſeſſes conſiderable revenues in Spain. The "Order of *Monteſa*," was inſtituted at Valencia, at the cloſe of the thirteenth century, in the place of the Templars, and enjoyed their poſſeſſions. Their chief ſeat being the town of Monteſa, the order from thence derived its name, and choſe St. George for their patron. In the year 1771, the late king inſtituted, after his own name, the "Order of *Charles III*," in commemoration of the birth of the infant. The badge is, a ſtar of eight points, enameiled white, and edged with gold: in the centre of the croſs is the image of the Virgin Mary, veſtments white and blue. On the reverſe the letters C. C. with the number III in the centre, and this motto, *Virtuti & Merito*. None but perſons of noble deſcent can belong to this order.

HISTORY of SPAIN.] Spain was probably firſt peopled by the Celtæ, from Gaul, to which it lies contiguous; or from Africa, from which it is only ſeparated by the narrow ſtrait of Gibraltar. The Phœnicians ſent colonies thither, and built Cadiz and Malaga. Afterwards, upon the riſe of Rome and Carthage, the poſſeſſion of this kingdom became an object of contention between thoſe powerful republics; but at length the Roman arms prevailed, and Spain remained in their poſſeſſion until the fall of that empire, when it became a prey to the Goths. In the beginning of the fifth century, the Suevi, the Vandals and the Alani divided this kingdom

kingdom among them, but in the year 584, the Goths again became the maſters.

Theſe, in their turn, were invaded by the Saracens, who, about the end of the ſeventh century, had poſſeſſed themſelves of the fineſt kingdoms of Aſia and Africa; and, not content with the immenſe regions that formerly compoſed great part of the Aſſyrian, Greek, and Roman empires, they croſs the Mediterranean, ravage Spain, and eſtabliſh themſelves in the ſoutherly provinces of that kingdom.

Don Pelago is mentioned as the firſt Old Spaniſh Prince who diſtinguiſhed himſelf againſt theſe infidels (who were afterwards known by the name of Moors, the greater part of them having come from Mauritania) and he took the title of king of Aſturia about the year 720. His ſucceſſes animated other Chriſtian princes to take arms likewiſe, and the two kingdoms of Spain and Portugal for many ages were perpetually embroiled in bloody wars.

The Moors in Spain were ſuperior to all their cotemporaries in arts and arms, and the Abdoulrahman line kept poſſeſſion of the throne near 300 years. Learning flouriſhed in Spain, while the reſt of Europe was buried in ignorance and barbarity. But the Mooriſh princes by degrees became weak and effeminate, and their chief miniſters proud and inſolent. A ſeries of civil wars enſued, which at laſt overturned the throne of Cordova, and the race of Abdoulrahman. Several petty principalities were formed on the ruins of this empire, and many cities of Spain had each an independent ſovereign. Now, every adventurer was entitled to the conqueſts he made upon the Moors, till Spain at laſt was divided into 12 or 13 kingdoms; and about the year 1095, Henry of Burgundy was declared by the king of Leon, count of Portugal; but his ſon, Alphonſo, threw off his dependence on Leon, and declared himſelf king. A ſeries of brave princes gave the Moors repeated overthrows in Spain, till about the year 1492, when all the kingdoms in Spain, Portugal excepted, were united by the marriage of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and Iſabella, the heireſs, and afterwards queen, of Caſtile, who took Grenada, and expelled out of Spain the Moors and Jews who would not be converts to the Chriſtian faith, to the number of 170,000 families. I ſhall, in their proper places, mention the vaſt acquiſitions made at this time to Spain by the diſcovery of America, and the firſt expeditions of the Portugueſe to the Eaſt-Indies, by the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope; but the ſucceſſes of both nations were attended with diſagreeable conſequences.

The expulſion of the Moors and Jews in a manner depopulated Spain of artiſts, labourers, and manufacturers; and the diſcovery of America not only added to that calamity, but rendered the remaining Spaniards moſt deplorably indolent. To complete their misfortunes, Ferdinand and Iſabella introduced the popiſh inquiſition, with all its horrors, into their dominions, as a ſafeguard againſt the return of the Moors and Jews.

Charles V, of the houſe of Auſtria, and emperor of Germany, ſucceeded to the throne of Spain, in right of his mother, who was the daughter of Ferdinand and Iſabella, in the year 1516. The extenſive poſſeſſions of the houſe of Auſtria in Europe, Africa, and, above all, America, from whence he drew immenſe treaſures, began to alarm the jealouſy of neighbouring princes, but could not ſatisfy the ambition of Charles; and we find him conſtantly engaged in foreign wars, or with his own proteſtant ſubjects, whom he in vain attempted to bring back to the catholic church. He alſo reduced the power of the nobles in Spain, abridged the privileges of the commons, and greatly extended the regal prerogative. At laſt, after

a long

a long and turbulent reign, he came to a reſolution that filled all Europe with aſtoniſhment, the withdrawing himſelf entirely from any concern in the affairs of this world, in order that he might ſpend the remainder of his days in retirement and ſolitude *.

Agreeably to this reſolution, he reſigned Spain and the Netherlands, with great formality, in the preſence of his principal nobility, to his ſon, Philip II, but could not prevail on the princes of Germany to elect him emperor, which they conferred on Ferdinand, Charles's brother, thereby dividing the dangerous power of the houſe of Auſtria into two branches; Spain, with all its poſſeſſions in Africa and the New World, alſo the Netherlands, and ſome Italian ſtates, remained with the elder branch, whilſt the empire, Hungary, and Bohemia, fell to the lot of the younger, which they ſtill poſſeſs.

* Charles, of all his vaſt poſſeſſions, reſerved nothing for himſelf but an annual penſion of 100,000 crowns; and choſe for the place of his retreat, a vale in Spain, of no great extent, watered by a ſmall brook, and ſurrounded by riſing grounds, covered with lofty trees. He gave ſtrict orders, that the ſtyle of the building which he erected there, ſhould be ſuch as ſuited his preſent ſituation, rather than his former dignity. It conſiſted only of ſix rooms; four of them in the form of friars' cells, with naked walls; and the other two, each twenty feet ſquare, were hung with brown cloth, and furniſhed in the moſt ſimple manner: they were all level with the ground, with a door on one ſide into a garden, of which Charles himſelf had given the plan, and had filled it with various plants, which he propoſed to cultivate with his own hands. After ſpending ſome time in the city of Ghent, in Flanders, the place of his nativity, he ſet out for Zealand, in Holland, where he prepared to embark for Spain, accompanied by his ſon, and a numerous retinue of princes and nobility; and taking an affectionate and laſt farewel of Philip and his attendants, he ſet out, on the 17th of September, 1556, under convoy of a large fleet of Spaniſh, Flemiſh, and Engliſh ſhips. As ſoon as he landed in Spain, he fell proſtrate on the ground; and conſidering himſelf now as dead to the world, he kiſſed the earth, and ſaid, "Naked came I out of my mother's womb, and naked I now return to thee, thou common mother of mankind." Some of the Spaniſh nobility paid their court to him as he paſſed along to the place of his retreat; but they were ſo few in number, and their attendance was ſo negligent, that Charles obſerved it, and felt, for the firſt time, that he was no longer a monarch. But he was more deeply affected with his ſon's ingratitude; who, forgetting already how much he owed to his father's bounty, obliged him to remain ſome weeks on the road, before he paid him the firſt moiety of that ſmall portion, which was all that he had reſerved of ſo many kingdoms. At laſt the money was paid; and Charles, having diſmiſſed a great number of his domeſtics, whoſe attendance he thought would be ſuperfluous, he entered into his humble retreat with twelve domeſtics only. Here he buried in ſolitude and ſilence, his grandeur, his ambition, together with all thoſe vaſt projects which, during half a century, had alarmed and agitated Europe, filling every kingdom in it, by turns, with the terror of his arms, and the dread of being ſubjected to his power. Here he enjoyed, perhaps, more complete ſatisfaction than all his grandeur had ever yielded him. Far from taking any part in the political tranſactions of the princes of Europe, he reſtrained his curioſity even from any enquiry concerning them: and he ſeemed to view the buſy ſcene which he had abandoned, with all the contempt and indifference ariſing from his thorough experience of its vanity, as well as from the pleaſing reflection of having diſengaged himſelf from its cares.

New amuſements and new objects now occupied his mind; ſometimes he cultivated the plants in his garden with his own hands; ſometimes he rode out to the neighbouring wood on a little horſe, the only one that he kept, attended by a ſingle ſervant on foot. When his infirmities confined him to his apartment, he either admitted a few gentlemen who reſided in the neighbourhood, and entertained them familiarly at his table; or he employed himſelf in ſtudying the principles, and in forming curious works of mechaniſm, of which he had always been remarkably fond. He was particularly curious with regard to the conſtruction of clocks and watches: and having found, after repeated trials, that he could not bring any two of them to go exactly alike, he reflected, it is ſaid, with a mixture of ſurpriſe and regret, on his own folly, in having beſtowed ſo much time and labour on the more vain attempt of bringing mankind to a preciſe uniformity of ſentiment concerning the intricate and myſterious doctrines of religion. And here, after two years' retirement, he was ſeized with a fever, which carried him off, in the 59th year of his age.

Philip

Philip II, inherited all his father's vices, with few of his good qualities. He was auſtere, haughty, immoderately ambitious, and through his whole life, a cruel bigot in the cauſe of popery His marriage with queen Mary, of England, an unfeeling bigot, like himſelf, his unſucceſsful addreſſes to her ſiſter Elizabeth, his reſentment and unſucceſsful wars with that princeſs, his tyranny and perſecutions in the Low Countries, the revolt and loſs of the United Provinces, with other particulars of his reign, have been already mentioned in the hiſtory of thoſe countries.

In Portugal he was more ſucceſsful. That kingdom, after being governed by a race of wiſe and brave princes, fell to Sebaſtian, about the year 1557. Sebaſtian left his life and a fine army, in a headſtrong, unjuſt, and ill-concerted expedition againſt the Moors, in Africa; and in the year 1580, Philip united Portugal to his own dominions, though the Braganza family, of Portugal, aſſerted a prior right By this acquiſition, Spain became poſſeſſed of the Portugueſe ſettlements in India, ſome of which ſhe ſtill holds.

The deſcendants of Philip proved to be very weak princes; but Philip and his father had ſo totally ruined the ancient liberties of Spain, that they reigned almoſt unmoleſted in their own dominions. Their viceroys, however, were at once ſo tyrannical and inſolent over the Portugueſe, that in the reign of Philip IV, in the year 1640, the nobility of that nation, by a well-conducted conſpiracy, expelled their tyrants, and placed the duke of Braganza, by the title of John IV, upon their throne, and ever ſince, Portugal has been a diſtinct kingdom from Spain.

The kings of Spain, of the Auſtrian line, failing in the perſon of Charles II, who left no iſſue, Philip, duke of Anjou, ſecond ſon to the Dauphin of France, and grandſon to Lewis XIV, mounted that throne, in virtue of his predeceſſor's will, by the name of Philip V, anno 1701. After a long and bloody ſtruggle with the German branch of the houſe of Auſtria, ſupported by England, he was confirmed in his dignity, at the concluſion of the war, by the ſhameful peace of Utrecht, 1713. And thus Lewis XIV, through a maſterly train of politics (for in his wars to ſupport his grandſon, as we have already obſerved, he was almoſt ruined) accompliſhed his favourite project of transferring the kingdom of Spain, with all its rich poſſeſſions in America and the Indies, from the houſe of Auſtria, to that of his own family of Bourbon. In 1734, Philip invaded Naples, and got that kingdom for his ſon Don Carlos, the Sicilians readily acknowledging him for their ſovereign, through the oppreſſion of the Imperialiſts.

After a long and turbulent reign, which was diſturbed by the ambition of his wife, Elizabeth, of Parma, Philip died in 1746, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Ferdinand VI, a mild and peaceable prince, who reformed many abuſes, and wanted to promote the commerce and proſperity of his kingdom. In 1759, he died without iſſue, through melancholy, for the loſs of his wife. Ferdinand was ſucceeded by his brother, Charles III, then king of Naples and the Two Sicilies, ſon to Phililp V, by his wife, the princeſs of Parma.

He was ſo warmly attached to the family compact of the houſe of Bourbon, that two years after his acceſſion, he even hazarded his American dominions to ſupport it. War being declared between him and England, the latter took from him the famous port and city of Havannah, in the iſland of Cuba, and thereby rendered herſelf entirely miſtreſs of the navigation of the Spaniſh plate-fleets. Notwithſtanding the ſucceſs of the Engliſh, their miniſtry thought proper, haſtily, to conclude a peace, in conſequence of which Havannah was reſtored to Spain. In 1775, an expedition was concerted againſt Algiers by the Spaniſh miniſtry, which had a moſt unſucceſsful termination. The troops, which amounted to upwards

of

of 24,000, and who were commanded by lieutenant-general Conde de O'Reilly, landed about a league and a half to the eaſtward of the city of Algiers: but were diſgraceſully beaten back, and obliged to take ſhelter on board their ſhips, having 27 officers killed, and 191 wounded; and 501 rank and file killed, and 2088 wounded. In the years 1783, and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy it, but after ſpending much ammunition, and loſing many lives, were forced to retire without doing much injury.

When the war with Great Britain and her American colonies had ſubſiſted for ſome time, and France had taken part with the latter, the court of Spain was alſo prevailed upon to commence hoſtilities againſt Great Britain. In particular, the Spaniards cloſely beſieged Gibraltar, both by ſea and land; it having been always a great mortification to them, that this fortreſs ſhould be poſſeſſed by the Engliſh. The grand attack, on the 13th of September, 1782, under the command of the duke de Crillon, by ten battering ſhips, from 600 to 1400 tons' burden, carrying in all 212 heavy guns entirely new, and diſcharging ſhot of 26 pounds weight. The ſhowers of ſhot and ſhells which were directed from them, from their land-batteries, and on the other hand from the various works of the garriſon, exhibited a ſcene, of which perhaps neither pen nor the pencil can furniſh a competent idea. It is ſufficient to ſay, that *four hundred pieces* of the heavieſt artillery were playing at the ſame moment: an inſtance which has ſcarcely occurred in any ſiege ſince the invention of thoſe wonderful engines of deſtruction.

The irreſiſtible impreſſion of the red-hot balls, which were ſent from the garriſon in ſuch numbers and in ſuch directions, was ſoon conſpicuous; for in the afternoon, ſmoke was perceived to iſſue from the admiral's ſhip and another, and by one in the morning ſeveral were in flames, and numbers of rockets were thrown up from each of their ſhips as ſignals of diſtreſs. To reſcue from the flames thoſe who were now incapable of acting as enemies, could not be done without the greateſt hazard, by reaſon of the blowing up of the ſhips, and the previous diſcharge of the guns as the fire reached them; yet in defiance of every danger, brigadier Curtis diſtinguiſhed himſelf in an eminent manner in this humane undertaking, and with twelve gun-boats, ſaved nine officers, two prieſts, and 334 men, all Spaniards; beſides one officer, and eleven Frenchmen, who had floated in the preceding evening.

Thus ended all the hopes of the Spaniards of reducing the fortreſs of Gibraltar. But great as was the bravery of the Britiſh garriſon, which deſerves every encomium, the ſmall numbers of the killed and wounded are alone ſufficient to ſhow that they muſt have been aſſiſted by very ſtrong fortifications, or it was impoſſible that any ſkill whatever could have reſiſted ſuch tremendous power. Some trifling operations continued on the ſide of the Spaniards till the reſtoration of peace in 1783.

In other enterprizes, however, the Spaniards proved more ſucceſsful. The iſland of Minorca was ſurrendered to them on the 6th of February, 1782, after having been beſieged for 171 days. The garriſon conſiſted of no more than 2692 men, while the forces of the enemy amounted to 16,000, under the command of the duke de Crillon. The Spaniſh commander at firſt attempted to corrupt the governor (general Murray); but this being rejected with indignation, the ſiege was commenced in form; and the garriſon would have ſhowed themſelves equally invincible with thoſe of Gibraltar, had it been poſſible to relieve them in the ſame manner. The ſcurvy ſoon made its appearance, and reduced them to ſuch a deplorable ſituation, that they were at laſt obliged to ſurrender in ſpite of every

every effort of human fortitude or ſkill; and ſo ſenſible were both parties that this was the true cauſe, that the Spaniſh general allowed them to march out with their arms ſhouldered, drums beating, and colours flying, while the diſconſolate Britiſh ſoldiers proteſted that they ſurrendered their arms to God, and not to the Spaniards.

His late catholic majeſty did all he could to oblige his ſubjects to deſiſt from their ancient dreſs and manners, and carried his endeavours ſo far, that it occaſioned ſo dangerous an inſurrection at Madrid, as obliged him to part with his miniſter, the marquis of Squillace; thereby affording an inſtance of the neceſſity that even deſpotic princes are under, of paying ſome attention to the inclinations of their ſubjects.

The government of Spain teſtified much uneaſineſs at the French revolution, and watched narrowly thoſe who ſpoke in favour of its principles. The circulation of all public papers and political pamphlets from France was ſeverely prohibited. The proclamation againſt tinkers and knife-grinders, introducing ſeditious papers into the kingdom, and the reſcript concerning ſtrangers, ſhow all the deformity, but, at the ſame time, the old age of deſpotiſm. If dotage be a ſign of decay, theſe ſymptoms are very apparent in this government; and a temperate revolution in Spain would be a matter of far more exultation to the philoſopher, than that of France, for its miſeries are far greater. Liberty, ſcience, and true religion, are confined in France, but in Spain they are trampled under, by the brutal feet of monks and bigots.

A ſhort war aroſe between the Spaniards and the emperor of Morocco. The emperor beſieged Ceuta, but peace is ſince reſtored. It was unjuſtly ſurmiſed that this war was entered into, in order to divert the attention of the people, who might be impreſſed with the affairs of France; but the reign of ignorance and bigotry is ſo firmly eſtabliſhed in Spain, that many years may elapſe before any idea of freedom is formed in that unhappy kingdom. In France the criſis was prepared by innumerable writings; but it is believed that not even a pamphlet exiſts in the Spaniſh language, which diſplays any juſt or liberal notions of government.

The ſudden diſmiſſion of count Florida Blanca from the office of prime miniſter originated in cauſes not diſcloſed. It is imagined that the court found this ſtep neceſſary, to appeaſe the public murmurs at ſome late meaſures, particularly the edict concerning ſtrangers, which contributed to impoſe farther fetters upon commerce, and which has ſince been repealed. On the 28th of February, 1792, the miniſter was removed; he has ſince been impriſoned in the caſtle of Pampeluna, and is to be tried for various offences: and count d'Aranda, an old ſtateſman, a warm friend of the queen and nobility of France, ſucceeded to his employments, till ſome other arrangement could be formed. It is ſaid, he aboliſhed the ſuperintendant tribunal of police, a kind of civil inquiſition; and in other liberal meaſures appeared to ſee the real intereſts of monarchs, which is certainly to concede with grace, in order to prevent the deſpair of the people from recurring to force. His influence, however, was but ſhort; and has been ſucceeded by that of the duke d'Alcudia.

Charles IV, king of Spain, born Nov. 11, 1748, aſcended the throne Dec. 13, 1788 (upon the death of his father, Charles III) and was married to Louiſa-Maria-Thereſa, princeſs of Parma, Sept. 4, 1765, by whom he has iſſue,

1. Charlotte, born April 25, 1775.
2. Mary-Louiſa, born July 9, 1777.
3. Philip, born Aug. 10, 1783.
4. Ferdinand, born Oct. 14, 1784.

5. Maria-Iſabella, born July 6, 1789.

Brothers to the king:

1. Ferdinand, the preſent king of the Two Sicilies, born in 1751, married in 1768, to the arch-ducheſs Mary-Cardire-Louiſa, ſiſter to Joſeph II. late emperor of Germany.

2. Anthony-Paſcal, born Dec. 31, 1755.

PORTUGAL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 300, Breadth 100	between	37 and 42 north latitude. 7 and 10 weſt longitude.

Containing 32,000 ſquare miles, with 72 inhabitants to each.

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Spain on the North and Eaſt, and on the South and Weſt by the Atlantic Ocean, being the moſt weſterly kingdom on the continent of Europe.

ANCIENT NAMES AND DIVISIONS. } This kingdom was, in the time of the Romans, called Luſitania. The etymology of the modern name is uncertain. It moſt probably is derived from ſome noted harbour or port, to which the Gauls (for ſo ſtrangers are called in the Celtic) reſorted. By the form of the country, it is naturally divided into three parts; the northern, middle, and ſouthern provinces.

	Provinces.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
The Northern Diviſion contains	Entre Minho	Braga	6814
	Douro, and	Oporto and Viana	
	Tralos Montes	Miranda and Villa Real	
The Middle Diviſion contains	Biera	Coimbra	12640
		Guarda Caſtel Rodrigo	
		Lisbon (38-42 N. lat. 8-53 W. lon.)	
	Eſtremadura	St. Ubes and Leira	
The Southern Diviſion contains	Entre Tajo	Ebora, or Evora	8397
	Guadiana	Portalegre, Elvas, Beja	
	Alentejo	Lagos	
	Algarva	Faro, Tavora, and Silves	

SOIL, AIR, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſoil of Portugal is not in general equal to that of Spain for fertility, eſpecially in corn, which they import from other countries. Their fruits are the ſame as in Spain, but not ſo highly flavoured. The Portugueſe wines, when old and genuine, are eſteemed to be very friendly to the human conſtitution, and ſafe to drink*.

* The port-wines are made in the diſtricts round Oporto, which does not produce one half the quantity that is conſumed, under that name, in the Britiſh dominions only. The merchants in this city have very ſpacious wine vaults, capable of holding 6 or 7000 pipes, and it is ſaid that 20,000 are yearly exported from Oporto.

Portugal

Portugal contains mines, but they are not worked; variety of gems, marbles, and mill ſtones, and a fine mine of ſalt-petre near Liſbon. Their cattle and poultry are but indifferent eating. The air, eſpecially about Liſbon, is reckoned ſoft and beneficial to conſumptive patients; it is not ſo ſearching as that of Spain, being refreſhed from the ſea-breezes.

MOUNTAINS.] The face of Portugal is mountainous, or rather rocky, for their mountains are generally barren: the chief are thoſe which divide Algarva from Alentejo; thoſe of Tralos Montes; and the rock of Liſbon, at the mouth of the Tajo.

WATER AND RIVERS.] Though every brook in Portugal is reckoned a river, yet the chief Portugueſe rivers are mentioned in Spain, all of them falling into the Atlantic Ocean. The Tagus or Tajo was celebrated for its golden ſand. Portugal contains ſeveral roaring lakes and ſprings; ſome of them are abſorbent even of the lighteſt ſubſtances, ſuch as wood, cork, and feathers; ſome, particularly one about 45 miles from Liſbon, are medicinal and ſanative; and ſome hot baths are found in the little kingdom, or rather province of Algarva.

PROMONTORIES AND BAYS.] The promontories or capes of Portugal are Cape Mondego, near the mouth of the river Mondego; Cape Roca, at the north entrance of the river Tajo; Cape Eſpithel, at the ſouth entrance of the river Tajo; and cape St. Vincent, on the ſouth-weſt point of Algarva. The bays are thoſe of Cadoan, or St. Ubes, ſouth of Liſbon, and Lagos Bay in Algarva.

ANIMALS.] The ſea-fiſh, on the coaſt of Portugal, are reckoned excellent; on the land, the hogs and kids are tolerable eating. Their mules are ſure, and ſerviceable both for draught and carriage; and their horſes, though ſlight, are lively.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] According to the beſt calculation, Portugal contains near two millions of inhabitants. By a ſurvey made in the year 1732, there were in that kingdom 3,344 pariſhes, and 1,742,230 lay perſons (which is but 522 laity to each pariſh on a medium) beſides above 300,000 eccleſiaſtics of both ſexes.

The modern Portugueſe retain nothing of that adventurous enterpriſing ſpirit that rendered their forefathers ſo illuſtrious 300 years ago. They have, ever ſince the houſe of Braganza mounted the throne, degenerated in all their virtues; though ſome noble exceptions are ſtill remaining among them, and no people are ſo little obliged as the Portugueſe are to the reports of hiſtorians and travellers. Their degeneracy is evidently owing to the weakneſs of their monarchy, which renders them inactive, for fear of diſobliging their powerful neighbours; and that inactivity has proved the ſource of pride, and other unmanly vices. Treachery has been laid to their charge, as well as ingratitude, and above all, an intemperate paſſion for revenge. They are, if poſſible, more ſuperſtitious, and, both in high and common life, affect more ſtate, than the Spaniards themſelves. Among the lower people, thieving is commonly practiſed; and all ranks are accuſed of being unfair in their dealings, eſpecially with ſtrangers. It is hard, however, to ſay what alteration may be made in the character of the Portugueſe, by the expulſion of the Jeſuits, and diminution of the papal influence among them; but above all, by that ſpirit of independency, with regard to commercial affairs, upon Great Britain, which, not much to the honour of their gratitude, though to the intereſt of their own country, is now ſo much encouraged by their court and miniſtry.

The Portugueſe are neither ſo tall nor ſo well made as the Spaniards, whoſe habits and cuſtoms they imitate; only the quality affect to be more

gaily

gaily and richly dreſſed. The Portugueſe ladies are thin and ſmall of ſtature. Their complexion is olive, their eyes black and expreſſive, and their features generally regular. They are eſteemed to be generous, modeſt, and witty. They dreſs like the Spaniſh ladies, with much aukwardneſs, and aſſected gravity, but in general more magnificently; and they are taught by their huſbands to exact from their ſervants an homage, that in other countries is paid only to royal perſonages. The furniture of the houſes, eſpecially of their grandees, is rich and ſuperb to exceſs; and they maintain an incredible number of domeſtics, as they never diſcharge any who ſurvive, after ſerving their anceſtors. The poorer ſort have ſcarcely any furniture at all, for they, in imitation of the Moors, ſit always croſs-legged on the ground. The Portugueſe peaſant has never reaped any advantage from the benefits of foreign trade, and of the fine and vaſt countries the kings of Portugal poſſeſſed in Africa or in the Eaſt; or of thoſe ſtill remaining to them in South America. The only foreign luxury he is yet acquainted with is tobacco; and when his feeble purſe can reach it, he purchaſes a dried Newfoundland cod-fiſh; but this is a regale he dares ſeldom aſpire to. A piece of bread made of Indian corn, and a ſalted pilchard, or a head of garlic, to give that bread a flavour, compoſe his ſtanding diſh; and if he can get a bit of the hog, the ox, or the calf, he himſelf fattens, to regale his wretched family at Chriſtmas or Eaſter, he has reached the pinnacle of happineſs in this world; and indeed whatever he poſſeſſed beyond this habitual penury, according to the preſent ſtate and exertions of his intellects, would quickly be taken from him, or rather he would willingly part with it, being taught by his numberleſs ghoſtly comforters, with which his country ſwarms, to look forward for eaſe and happineſs to another ſtate of exiſtence, to which they are themſelves the infallible guides and conductors.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion of Portugal, is popery, in the ſtricteſt ſenſe. The Portugueſe have a patriarch, but formerly he depended entirely upon the pope, unleſs when a quarrel ſubſiſted between the courts of Rome and Liſbon. The power of his holineſs in Portugal has been of late ſo much curtailed, that it is difficult to deſcribe the religious ſtate of that country: all we know is, that the royal revenues are greatly increaſed, at the expence of the religious inſtitutions in the kingdom. The power of the inquiſition is now taken out of the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, and converted to a ſtate-trap for the benefit of the crown.

ARCHBISHOPRICS AND BISHOPRICS.] The archbichopries are thoſe of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon. The firſt of theſe has ten ſuffragan biſhops; the ſecond two; and the laſt ten, including thoſe of the Portugueſe ſettlements abroad. The partriarch of Liſbon is generally a cardinal, and a perſon of the higheſt birth.

LANGUAGE.] The Portugueſe language differs but little from that of Spain, and that provincially. Their Paternoſter runs thus: *Padre noſſo que eſtas nos Ceos, ſanctificado ſeio o tu nome; venha a nos tua reyniq, ſeia feita a tua rotade, aſſi nos Ceos, commo na terra. O pacneſſa de codadia, dano lo oei neſtro dia. E perdoa nos ſenbor, as noſſas dividas, aſſi comio nos perdaomos, a nos noſſos devedores. E nao nos dexes cabir om tentatio, mas libra nos do mal.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Theſe are ſo few, that they are mentioned with indignation, even by thoſe of the Portugueſe themſelves, who have the ſmalleſt tincture of literature. Some efforts, though very weak, have of late been made by a few, to draw their countrymen from this deplorable ſtate of ignorance. It is univerſally allowed, that the defect is not owing to the want of genius, but of a proper education. The anceſtors of the

the preſent Portugueſe were certainly poſſeſſed of more true knowledge, with regard to aſtronomy, geography, and navigation, than all the world beſides, about the middle of the 16th century, and for ſome time after. Camoens, who himſelf was a great adventurer and voyager, was poſſeſſed of a true, but neglected, poetical genius.

UNIVERSITIES.] Theſe are Coimbra, founded in 1291, by king Dennis; and which had fifty profeſſors: but it has been lately put under ſome new regulations. Evora, founded in 1559; and the college of the nobles at Liſbon, where the young nobility are educated in every branch of polite learning and the ſciences. All the books that did belong to the baniſhed Jeſuits are kept here, which compoſe a very large library. The Engliſh language is likewiſe taught in this college. Here is alſo a college where young gentlemen are educated in the ſcience of engineering, and when qualified get commiſſions in that corps.

CURIOSITIES.] The lakes and fountains which have been already mentioned, form the chief of theſe. The remains of ſome caſtles in the Mooriſh taſte, are ſtill ſtanding. The Roman bridge and aqueduct at Coimbra are almoſt entire, and deſervedly admired. The walls of Santarcen are ſaid to be of Roman work likewiſe. The church and monaſtery near Liſbon, where the kings of Portugal are buried, are inexpreſſibly magnificent, and ſeveral monaſteries in Portugal are dug out of the hard rock. The chapel of St. Roch is probably one of the fineſt and richeſt in the world; the paintings are moſaic work, ſo curiouſly wrought with ſtones of all colours, as to aſtoniſh the beholders. To theſe curioſities we may add, that the king is poſſeſſed of the largeſt diamond (which was found in Braſil) that ever was perhaps ſeen in the world.

CHIEF CITIES.] Liſbon is the capital of Portugal, and is thought to contain 200,000 inhabitants. Great part of it was ruined by an earthquake, which alſo ſet the remainder on fire, upon All-Saints-day, 1755. It ſtill contains many magnificent palaces, churches, and public buildings. Its ſituation (riſing from the Tagus in the form of a creſcent) renders its appearance at once delightful and ſuperb, and it is deſervedly accounted the greateſt port in Europe, next to London and Amſterdam. The harbour is ſpacious and ſecure, and the city itſelf is guarded from any ſudden attack towards the ſea by forts, though they would make but a poor defence againſt ſhips of war. All that part of the city that was demoliſhed by the earthquake, is planned out in the moſt regular and commodious form. Some large ſquares and many ſtreets are already built. The ſtreets form right angles, and are broad and ſpacious. The houſes are lofty, elegant, and uniform; and being built of white ſtone, make a beautiful appearance. The ſecond city in this kingdom is Oporto, which is computed to contain 30,000 inhabitants. The chief article of commerce in this city is wine; and the inhabitants of half the ſhops in the city are coopers. The merchants aſſemble daily in the chief ſtreet, to tranſact buſineſs; and are protected from the ſun by ſail-cloths hung acroſs from the oppoſite houſes. About thirty Engliſh families reſide here, who are chiefly concerned in the wine trade.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe, within theſe ſeven or eight years, have taken a ſurpriſing turn in Portugal. The miniſtry have projected many new companies and regulations, which have been again and again complained of as unjuſt and oppreſſive, and inconſiſtent with the privileges which the Britiſh merchants formerly enjoyed by the moſt ſolemn treaties.

The Portugueſe exchange their wine, ſalt, and fruits, and moſt of their own materials, for foreign manufactures. They make a little linen, and

ſome

some coarse silk and woollen, with a variety of straw work, and are excellent in preserving and candying fruit. The commerce of Portugal, though seemingly extensive, proves of little solid benefit to her, as the European nations trading with her, engross all the productions of her colonies, as well as her own native commodities, as her gold, diamonds, pearls, sugars, cocoa-nuts, fine red wood, tobacco, hides, and the drugs of Brasil; her ivory, ebony, spices, and drugs of Africa and East-India, in exchange for the almost numberless manufactures, and the vast quantity of corn and salt-fish, supplied by those European nations, and by the English North American colonies.

The Portuguese foreign settlements are, however, not only of immense value, but vastly improveable; Brasil, the Isles of Cape Verd, Madeira, and the Azores. They bring gold from their plantations on the east and west coasts of Africa, and likewise slaves for manufacturing their sugars and tobacco in Brasil, and their South American settlements.

What the value of these may be, is unknown perhaps to themselves; but they certainly abound in all the precious stones, and rich mines of gold and silver, and other commodities that are produced in the Spanish dominions there. It is computed that the king's fifth of gold sent from Brasil, amounts annually to 300,000l. sterling, notwithstanding the vast contraband trade. The little shipping the Portuguese have, is chiefly employed in carrying on the slave-trade, and a correspondence with Goa, their chief settlement in the East-Indies, and their other possessions there as Diu, Daman, Macao, &c.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The crown of Portugal is absolute; but the nation still preserves an appearance of its ancient free constitution, in the meeting of the cortes, or states, consisting, like our parliaments, of clergy, nobility, and commons. They pretend to a right of being consulted upon the imposition of new taxes; but the only real power they have, is, that their assent is necessary in every new regulation, with regard to the succession. In this they are indulged, to prevent all future disputes on that account.

The nature of this government may be fairly pronounced the most despotic of any kingdom in Europe. The established law is generally a dead letter, excepting where its decrees are carried into execution by the supplementary mandates of the sovereign, which are generally employed in defeating the purposes of safety and protection; which law is calculated to extend equally over all the subjects.

Here the people have no more share in the direction of government, in enacting of laws, and in the regulating of agriculture and commerce, than they have in that of Russia, or China. The far greater part know nothing of what is done in that respect. Every man has no other alternative but to yield a blind and ready obedience, in whatever concerns himself, to the decrees and laws of the despot, as promulgated from time to time by his secretaries of state. How would an Englishman, alive to all the feelings of civil liberty, tremble at reading the preamble of every new law published here! and which runs thus: "*I, the King, in virtue of my own certain knowledge, of my royal will and pleasure, and of my full, supreme, and arbitrary power, which I hold only of God, and for which I am accountable to no man on earth, I do, in consequence, order and command, &c. &c.*

All great preferments, both spiritual and temporal, are disposed of in the council of state, which is composed of an equal number of the clergy and nobility, with the secretary of state. A council of war regulates all military affairs, as the treasury courts do the finances. The council of

the palace is the higheſt tribunal that can receive appeals, but the Caſa da Supplicaçaõ, is a tribunal from which no appeal can be brought. The laws of Portugal are contained in three duodecimo volumes, and have the civil law for their foundation.

REVENUES AND TAXES.] The revenues of the crown amount to above 3,000,000 and a half ſterling, annually. The cuſtoms and duties on goods exported and imported are exceſſive, and farmed out; but if the Portugueſe miniſtry ſhould ſucceed in all their projects, and in eſtabliſhing excluſive companies, to the prejudice of the Britiſh trade, the inhabitants will be able to bear theſe taxes without murmuring. Foreign merchandiſe pays 23 per cent. on importation, and fiſh from Newfoundland 25 per cent. Fiſh taken in the neighbouring ſeas and rivers pay 27 per cent. and the tax upon lands, and cattle that are ſold, is 10 per cent. The king draws a conſiderable revenue from the ſeveral orders of knighthood, of which he is grand-maſter. The pope, in conſideration of the large ſums he draws out of Portugal, gives the king the money ariſing from indulgencies, and licences to eat fleſh at times prohibited, &c. The king's revenue is now greatly increaſed by the ſuppreſſion of the Jeſuits, and other religious orders and inſtitutions.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] The Portugueſe government uſed to depend chiefly for protection on England; and therefore, for many years, they greatly neglected their army and fleet; but the ſame friendly connexion between Great Britain and Portugal, does not at preſent ſubſiſt. In the late reign, though they received the moſt effectual aſſiſtance from England, when invaded by the French and Spaniards, his Moſt Faithful Majeſty judged it expedient to raiſe a conſiderable body of troops, who were chiefly diſciplined by foreign officers: but ſince that period, the army has been again neglected, no proper encouragement being given to foreign officers, and little attention paid to the diſcipline of the troops, ſo that the military force of Portugal is now again inconſiderable, amounting, it is ſaid, to 25,000 men. The naval force of this kingdom is about ſeventeen ſhips of war, including ſix frigates.

ROYAL TITLES AND ARMS.] The king's titles are, King of Portugal and the Algarves, Lord of Guinea, and of the navigation, conqueſt, and commerce of Ethiopia, Arabia, Perſia, and Braſil. The laſt king was complimented by the pope, with the title of His Moſt Faithful Majeſty. That of his eldeſt ſon is, Prince of Braſil.

The arms of Portugal are, argent, five eſcutcheons, azure, placed croſs-wiſe, each charged with as many beſants as the firſt, placed ſalter-wiſe, and pointed, ſable, for Portugal. The ſhield bordered, gules charged with ſeven towers, or, three in chief, and two in each flanch.—The ſupporters are two winged dragons, and the creſt a dragon, or, under the two flanches, and the baſe of the ſhield appears at the end of it; two croſſes, the two firſt fleur-de-lis, vert, which is for the order of Aviez, and the ſecond patee, gules, for the order of Chriſt; the motto is changeable, each king aſſuming a new one; but it is frequently theſe words, *pro Rege & Grege*, "For the King and the People."

NOBILITY AND ORDERS.] The title and diſtinctions of their nobility are much the ſame as thoſe of Spain. Their orders of knighthood are three; 1. That of *Avis* or *Aviez*, firſt inſtituted by Alphonſus Henriquez, king of Portugal, in the year 1147, as a military and religious order on account of his taking Evora from the Moors. In 1213, it was ſubject to the order of Calatrava, in Spain, but when Don John, of Portugal, ſeized the crown, he made it again independent. 2. The "Order of St. *James*," inſtituted by Dennis I, king of Portugal, in the year 1310,

ſuppoſing that under that ſaint's protection he became victorious over the Moors, and he endowed it with great privileges. The knights profeſs chaſtity, hoſpitality, and obedience, and none are admitted till they prove the gentility of their blood. Their enſign is a red ſword, the habit white, and their principal convent is at Dalmela. 3. The "Order of *Chriſt*" was inſtituted in the year 1317, by Dennis I, of Portugal, to engage the nobility to aſſiſt him more powerfully againſt the Moors. The knights obtained great poſſeſſions, and elected their grand-maſter, till 1522, when pope Adrian VI conferred that office on John III and his ſucceſſors to the crown of Portugal. Theſe orders have ſmall commanderies and revenues annexed to them, but are in ſmall eſteem. The "Order of *Malta*" hath likewiſe 22 commanderies in Portugal.

HISTORY OF PORTUGAL.] This kingdom comprehends the greateſt part of the ancient Luſitania, and ſhared the ſame fate with the other Spaniſh provinces, in the conteſts between the Carthaginians and Romans, and in the decline and fall of the Roman empire, and was ſucceſſively in ſubjection to the Suevi, Alans, Viſigoths, and Moors. In the eleventh century, Alphonſus VI, king of Caſtile and Leon, rewarded Henry, grandſon of Robert, king of France, for his bravery and aſſiſtance againſt the Moors, with his daughter, and that part of Portugal then in the hands of the Chriſtians. Henry was ſucceeded by his ſon, Alphonſus Henry, in the year 1095, who gained a deciſive victory over five Mooriſh kings, in July, 1139. This victory proved the origin of the monarchy of Portugal, for Alphonſus was then proclaimed king by his ſoldiers. He reigned 46 years, and was eſteemed for his courage and love of learning—His deſcendants maintained themſelves on the throne for ſome centuries; indeed, Sancho II was expelled from his dominions for cowardice, in the year 1240.

Dennis I, or Dionyſius, was called the *Father of his country*; he built and rebuilt 44 cities and towns in Portugal, founded the military order of Chriſt, and was a very fortunate prince. He reigned 46 years.—Under his ſucceſſor, Alphonſus IV, happened ſeveral earthquakes at Liſbon, which threw down part of the city, and deſtroyed many lives.—John I was illuſtrious for his courage, prudence, and conqueſts in Africa; under him Madeira was firſt diſcovered, in 1420, and the Canaries; he took Ceuta, and, after a reign of 49 years, died, in the year 1433. In the reign of Alphonſo V, about 1480, the Portugueſe diſcovered the coaſt of Guinea; and in the reign of his ſucceſſor, John II, they diſcovered the Cape of Good Hope, and the kingdom of Moni-Congo, and ſettled colonies, and built forts in Africa, Guinea, and the Eaſt Indies. Emanuel, ſurnamed the Great, ſucceeded him in 1495, and adopted the plan of his predeceſſors, fitting out fleets for new diſcoveries. Vaſco de Gama, under him, cruiſed along the coaſt of Africa and Ethiopia, and landed in Indoſtan: and in the year 1500, Alvarez diſcovered Braſil.

John III ſucceeded in 1521, and while he loſt ſome of his African ſettlements, made new acquiſitions in the Indies. He ſent the famous Xavier as a miſſionary to Japan, and, in the height of his zeal, eſtabliſhed that infernal tribunal, the inquiſition, in Portugal, anno 1526, againſt the entreaties and remonſtrances of his people. Sebaſtian, his grandſon, ſucceeded him in 1557, and undertook a cruſade againſt the Moors in Africa. In 1578, in a battle with the king of Fez and Morocco, on the banks of the river Lucco, he was defeated, and either ſlain or drowned. Henry, a cardinal, and uncle to the unfortunate Sebaſtian, being the ſon of Emanuel, ſucceeded, but died without iſſue, in the year 1585; on which, Anthony Prior, of Crato, was choſen king, by the ſtates of the

kingdom; but Philip II, of Spain, as hath been obſerved in our hiſtory of that country, pretended that the crown belonged to him, becauſe his mother was the eldeſt daughter of Emanuel, and ſent the duke of Alva with a powerful force, who ſubdued the country, and proclaimed his maſter king of Portugal, the 12th Sept. 1580.

The viceroys under Philip and his two ſucceſſors, Philip III, and Philip IV, behaved towards the Portugueſe with great rapacity and violence. The Spaniſh miniſters treated them as vaſſals of Spain, and by their repeated acts of oppreſſion and tyranny, they ſo kindled the hatred and courage of the Portugueſe, as to produce a revolt at Liſbon, the firſt of December, 1640. The people obliged John, duke of Braganza, the legitimate heir to the crown, to accept it, and he ſucceeded to the throne by the title of John IV, almoſt without bloodſhed, and the foreign ſettlements alſo acknowledged him as their ſovereign. A fierce war ſubſiſted for many years between the two kingdoms, and all the efforts of the Spaniards to re-unite them, proved vain, ſo that a treaty was concluded in February, 1668, by which Portugal was declared to be free and independent.

The Portugueſe could not have ſupported themſelves under their revolt from Spain, had not the latter power been engaged in wars with England and Holland; and, upon the reſtoration of Charles II, of England, that prince having married a princeſs of Portugal, prevailed with the crown of Spain to give up all pretenſions to that kingdom. Alphonſo, ſon to John IV, was then king of Portugal. He had the misfortune to diſagree at once with his wife and his brother Peter; and they, uniting their intereſts, not only forced Alphonſo to reſign his crown, but obtained a diſpenſation from the pope for their marriage, which was actually conſummated. They had a daughter; but Peter, by a ſecond marriage, had ſons, the eldeſt of whom was John, his ſucceſſor, and father to the late king of Portugal. John, like his father, joined the grand confederacy formed by king William; but neither of them were of much ſervice in humbling the power of France. On the contrary, he almoſt ruined the allies, by occaſioning the loſs of the battle of Almanza, in 1707.—John died in 1750, and was ſucceeded by his ſon Joſeph, whoſe reign was neither happy to himſelf, nor fortunate for his people. The fatal earthquake, in 1755, overwhelmed his capital, and ſhook his kingdom to the centre. His ſucceeding adminiſtration was not diſtinguiſhed by the affection that it acquired at home, or the reputation which it ſuſtained abroad. It was deeply ſtained with domeſtic blood; and rendered odious by exceſſive and horrible cruelty. In September, 1758, the king was attacked by aſſaſſins, and narrowly eſcaped with his life, in a ſolitary place near his country palace of Belem. Some of the firſt families of the kingdom were hereupon ruined, tortured, and nearly cut off from the face of the earth, in conſequence of an accuſation being exhibited againſt them of having conſpired againſt the king's life. But they were condemned without any proper evidence, and their innocence has been ſince authentically declared. From this ſuppoſed conſpiracy is dated the expulſion of the Jeſuits (who were conjectured to have been at the bottom of the plot) from all parts of the Portugueſe dominions. The Marquis de Pombal who was at this time the prime miniſter of Portugal, governed the kingdom for many years with a moſt unbounded authority, and which appears to have been ſometimes directed to the moſt cruel and arbitrary purpoſes.

In 1762, when a war broke out between Spain and England, the Spaniards, and their allies, the French, attempted to force his Faithful Majeſty

into

into their alliance, and offered to garriſon his ſea-towns againſt the Engliſh, with their troops. The king of Portugal rejected this propoſal, and declared war againſt the Spaniards, who, without reſiſtance, entered Portugal with a conſiderable army, while a body of French threatened it from another quarter. Some have doubted whether any of theſe courts were in earneſt upon this occaſion, and whether the whole of the pretended war was not concerted to force England into a peace with France, and Spain, in conſideration of Portugal's apparent danger. It is certain, that both the French and Spaniards carried on the war in a very dilatory manner, and that had they been in earneſt, they might have been maſters of Liſbon, long before the arrival of the Engliſh troops to the aſſiſtance of the Portugueſe. However, a few Engliſh battalions put an effectual ſtop, by their courage and manœuvres, to the progreſs of the invaſion. Portugal was ſaved, and a peace was concluded at Fontainbleau, in 1763. Notwithſtanding this eminent ſervice performed by the Engliſh to the Portugueſe, who often had been ſaved before in the like manner, the latter, ever ſince that period, cannot be ſaid to have beheld their deliverers with a friendly eye. The moſt captious diſtinctions and frivolous pretences have been invented by the Portugueſe miniſters, for cramping the Engliſh trade, and depriving them of their privileges.

His Portugueſe majeſty having no ſon, his eldeſt daughter was married, by diſpenſation from the pope, to Don Pedro, her own uncle, to prevent the crown from falling into a foreign family. The late king died on the 24th of February, 1777, and was ſucceeded by his daughter, the preſent queen. One of the firſt acts of her majeſty's reign, was, the removal from power of the marquis de Pombal; an event which excited general joy throughout the kingdom, as might naturally be expected from the arbitrary and oppreſſive nature of his adminiſtration; though it has been alleged in his favour, that he adopted ſundry public meaſures, which were calculated to promote the real intereſts of Portugal.

On the 10th of March, 1792, the prince of Braſil, as preſumptive heir to the crown, publiſhed an edict, declaring, that as his mother, from her unhappy ſituation, was incapable of managing the affairs of government, he would place his ſignature to public papers, till the return of her health; and that no other change ſhould be made in the forms.

The queen is diſordered by religious melancholy; and Dr. Willis has been called to cure her; but her recovery remaining hopeleſs, the government of the country reſts with the prince of Braſil.

Maria-Frances-Iſabella, queen of Portugal, born Dec. 17, 1734; married June, 6, 1760, to her uncle, Don Pedro Clement, F.R.S. born July, 5, 1717, who died May, 25, 1786; began to reign Feb. 24, 1777.

Their Iſſue.

John-Maria-Joſeph-Louis, born May 13, 1767; married March 29, 1785, Maria-Louiſa, of Spain, born July 9, 1777.

The Iſſue by the late King.

1. Her preſent majeſty.
2. Anna-Frances-Antoinetta, born Oct, 8, 1736.
3. Maria-Franciſca Benedicta, born July 24, 1746; married, in 1776, to her nephew, the prince of Brazil, who died Sept. 11, 1788.

ITALY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.			Degrees.
Length	600	between	38 and 47 north latitude.
Breadth	400	between	7 and 19 east longitude.

Containing 116,967 ſquare miles, with 170 inhabitants in each.

THE form of Italy renders it very difficult to aſcertain its extent and dimenſions; for, according to ſome accounts, it is, from the frontiers of Switzerland, to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, about 750 miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to thoſe of the dominions of the ſtates of Venice, which is its greateſt breadth, about 400 miles, though in ſome parts it is ſcarcely 100.

BOUNDARIES.] Nature has fixed the boundaries of Italy; for towards the Eaſt it is bounded by the Gulf of Venice, or Adriatic Sea; on the South and Weſt by the Mediterranean Sea; and on the North, by the lofty mountains of the Alps, which divide it from France and Switzerland.

The whole of the Italian dominions, comprehending Corſica, Sardinia, the Venetian and other iſlands, are divided and exhibited in the following table:

Italy.	Countries' Names.	Square Miles.	Length.	Breadth.	Chief Cities.	
To the king of Sardinia,	Piedmont	6619	140	98	Turin	
	Savoy	3572	87	60	Chambery	
	Montſerrat	446	40	22	Caſal	
	Aleſſandrine	204	27	20	Alexandria	
	Oneglia	132	24	7	Oneglia	
	Sardinia I.	6600	135	57	Cagliari	
To the king of Naples,	Naples	22,000	275	200	Naples	
	Sicily I.	9400	180	92	Palermo	
To the Emperor,	Milan	5431	155	70	Milan	
	Mantua	700	47	27	Mantua	
	Mirandola	120	19	10	Mirandola	
	Pope's dominions	14,348	235	143	ROME	N. Lat. 41-54. E. Lon. 12-45.
To their reſpective princes,	Tuſcany	6640	115	94	Florence	
	Maſſa	82	16	11	Maſſa	
	Parma	1225	48	37	Parma	
	Modena	2560	65	39	Modena	
	Piombino	100	22	18	Piombino	
	Monaco	24	12	4	Monaco	
Republics,	Lucca	286	28	15	Lucca	
	St. Marino	8			St. Marino	
	Genoa	2400	160	55	Genoa	
To France,	Corſica I.	1520	90	38	Baſtia	
To the republic of Venice,	Venice	8434	175	95	Venice	
	Iſtria	1245	6	32	Capo d'Iſtria	
	Dalmatia P.	1400	135	20	Zara	
	Iſles of Dalmatia	1364				
Iſlands in the Venetian dominons,	Cephalonia	428	40	18	Cephalonia	
	Corfu, or Corcyra	104	31	10	Corfu	
	Zant, or Zacynthus	120	23	12	Zant	
	St. Maura	56	12	7	St. Maura	
	Little Cephalonia (Ithaca olim)	14	7	3		
	Total—	75,056				

ITALY

from the beſt

AUTHORITIES.

KEY

Italian Miles 75 to a Degree.

10 20 40 60 80 100 130

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree

10 20 40 60 80 100 120

Longitude 18 East from London.

4 6 18 20

46 44 42 40 38 36

Geneva
Annecy
Glaciers
Chamberry
Lyons
Grenoble
Aix
Nice
Toulon
Hieres Is
Lezzina
Meleda I.
Durazzo
Manfredonia
Polignano
Ostuni
Brindisi
Matera
Lecce
Otranto
la Valona
Gulf of Gallipoli
Tarento
Ugento
C. St Leuca
Corfu I.
Cozonza
S. Severino
Catanzaro
Squillace
Girace
C. Spartivento
C. Bugaroni or Cape
Stora Bay
Bona

FRANCE
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
SARDINIA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
GULF OF VENICE
IN EUROPE
AFRICA

ITALY

from the best

AUTHORITIES.

SWITZERLAND
GERMANY
FRANCE
SAVOY
PIEDMONT
PARMA
MODENA
TUSCANY
ECCLESIASTICAL STATE
TURKEY IN EUROPE
ADRIATIC SEA OR GULF OF VENICE
CORSICA
SARDINIA
ISLES OF LIPARI
SICILY
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
AFRICA

Geneva, Thonon, Annecy, Glacieres, Chamberry, Lyons, Grenoble, Aix, Toulon, Hieres Is., Nice, Monaco, Ventimiglia, Oneglia, Finale, Savona, Genoa, Ceva, Coni, Cuneo, Turin, Suza, Asti, Tortona, Alessandria, Pavia, Lodi, Crema, Bergamo, Lecco, Milan, Novara, Trent, Belluno, Cadore, Udine, Feltre, Treviso, Vicenza, Verona, Padua, Venice, Mantua, Rovigo, Mirandola, Ferrara, Po R., Piacenza, Parma, Modena, Bologna, Imola, Ravenna, Comachio, Faenza, Forli, Rimini, Grossa I., Pesaro, Urbino, Ancona, Fano, Sinigaglia, Lucca, Pistoia, Florence, Arno R., Pisa, Leghorn, Volterra, Siena, Arezzo, Cortona, Massa, Chiusi, Perugia, Osimo, Loretto, Fermo, Lesina, Lissa I., Meleda I., Capraia I., Piombino, C. Corso, Elba I., Grosseto, Orvieto, Viterbo, Civita Vecchia, Rome, Tivoli, Albano, Velletri, Gaeta, Mt. Circello, I. Sennon, I. di Ponza, I. di Ventotiene, Ischia I., Naples, Capua, Sessa, Aversa, Nola, Salerno, Capaccio, Policastro, Turfi, Gulf of Salerno, G. of Naples, Vesuvius, Pompeii, Torre del Greco, Portici, Castellamare, Sorrento, Capri I., Mt. St. Angelo, Manfredonia, Gulf of Manfredonia, Lucera, Foggia, Troja, Barletta, Trani, Barri, Minervino, Molfetta, Polignano, Ostuni, Brindisi, Lecce, Otranto, la Valona, Durazzo, Isles of Tremiti, Vieste, Lanciano, Chieti, Matera, Tarento, Gulf of Tarento, Gallipoli, Ugento, C. St. Leuca, Corfu I., Bassano, Cariati, Cirella, Citraro, Cotrone, C. di Palinuro, Cosenza, S. Severino, Catanzaro, Squillace, Stromboli I., Falconara I., Alicur I., Felicusa, Panaro I., Volcano I., Lipari I., Milazzo, Messina, Reggio, Gerace, C. Spartivento, Faro or Str. of Messina, Trapani, St. Pietro, Levanzo I., Marettimo I., Palermo, Cefalu, Alcamo, Salemi, Termini, Marsala, Mazzara, Sciacca, Sutera, Girgenti, Mt. Etna, Catania, Augusta, Syracuse, Alicata, Terranova, Noto, Modica, C. Passaro, Pantellaria I., Galita I., C. Bugaroni or Cape, Stora Bay, C. Serrat, C. Blanco, C. Ross, Bona, C. Zibeb, Cape Bon, Tunis, C. Tunham, Nabel, Assimara, C. Falcone, Bonifacio, Str: of Bonifacio, Porto Comole, Ajaccio, C. Negro, Valinco, Porto Vecchio, Sassar, Alghero, Boza, C. Comin, C. Si Sina, I. Maldeventre, Oristan, Bara, Ales, Cagliari, Porto Corallo, C. Ferralo, I. Serpentara, I. S. Pierre, I. S. Antiogo, C. Carbonaro, C. Tavolaro, Canal of Malta, Goza d'Malta, Malta.

Italian Miles 75 to a Degree. 10 20 40 60 80 100 120

British Statute Miles 69½ to a Degree. 10 20 40 60 80 100 120

Longitude 18 East from London.

6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20

36 38 40 42 44 46

SOIL AND AIR.] The happy ſoil of Italy produces the comforts and luxuries of life in great abundance; each diſtrict has its peculiar excellency and commodity: wines, the moſt delicious fruits, and oil, are the moſt general productions. As much corn grows here as ſerves the inhabitants; and were the ground properly cultivated, the Italians might export it to their neighbours. The Italian cheeſes, particularly thoſe called Parmeſans, and their native ſilk, form a principal part of their commerce. There is here a great variety of air: and ſome parts of Italy bear melancholy proofs of the alterations that accidental cauſes make on the face of nature; for the Compagna di Roma, where the ancient Romans enjoyed the moſt ſalubrious air of any place perhaps on the globe, is now almoſt peſtilential, through the decreaſe of inhabitants, which has occaſioned a ſtagnation of waters, and putrid exhalations. The air of the northern parts, which lie among the Alps, or in their neighbourhood, is keen and piercing, the ground being in many places covered with ſnow in winter. The Appennines, which are a ridge of mountains that longitudinally almoſt divide Italy, have great effects on its climate; the countries on the ſouth being warm, thoſe on the north, mild and temperate. The ſea-breezes refreſh the kingdom of Naples ſo much, that no remarkable inconveniency of air is found there, notwithſtanding its ſouthern ſituation. In general, the air of Italy may be ſaid to be dry and pure.

MOUNTAINS.] We have already mentioned the Alps and the Appennines, which form the chief mountains of Italy. The famous volcano of Mount Veſuvius lies in the neighbourhood of Naples.

RIVERS AND LAKES.] The rivers of Italy are the Po, the Var, the Adige, the Trebia, the Arno, and Tiber, which runs through the city of Rome. The famous Rubicon forms the ſouthern boundary between Italy and the ancient Ciſalpine Gaul.

The lakes of Italy are, the Maggiore, Lugano, Como, Iſco, and Garda, in the North; the Perugia or Thraſimene, Bracciana, Terni, and Celano, in the middle.

SEAS, GULPHS, OR BAYS, CAPES, PROMONTORIES, AND STRAITS. } Without a knowledge of theſe, neither the ancient Roman authors, nor the hiſtory or geography of Italy, can be underſtood. The ſeas of Italy are, the gulf of Venice, or the Adriatic ſea; the ſeas of Naples, Tuſcany, and Genoa; the bays or harbours of Nice, Villa Franca, Oneglia, Final, Savona, Vado, Spezzia, Lucca, Piſa, Leghorn, Piombino, Civita Vecchia, Gaeta, Naples, Salerno, Policaſtro, Rhegio, Quilace, Tarento, Manfredonia, Ravenna, Venice, Trieſte, Iſtria, and Fiume; Cape Spartavento del Alice, Otranto, and Ancona; the ſtrait of Meſſina, between Italy and Sicily.

The gulphs and bays in the Italian iſlands are thoſe of Fiorenzo, Baſtia, Talada, Porto Novo, Cape Corſa, Bonifacio, and Ferro, in Corſica; and the ſtrait of Bonifacio, between Corſica and Sardinia. The bays of Cagliari and Oriſtagni; Cape de Sardis, Cavello, Monte Santo, and Polo, in Sardinia. The gulfs of Meſſina, Melazzo, Palermo, Mazara, Syracuſe, and Catania; cape Faro, Melazzo, Orlando, Gallo, Trapano, Paſſaro, and Aleſſia, in Sicily; and the bays of Porto Feraio, and Porto Longone, in the iſland of Elba.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Many places of Italy abound in mineral ſprings; ſome hot, ſome warm, and many of ſulphureous, chalybeat, and medicinal qualities. Many of its mountains abound in mines that produce great quantities of emeralds, jaſper, agate, porphyry, lapis lazuli, and other valuable ſtones. Iron and copper-mines are found in a few places: and a mill for forging and fabricating theſe metals is erected near Tivoli, in

in Naples. Sardinia is said to contain mines of gold, silver, lead, iron, sulphur, and alum, though they are now neglected; and curious crystals and coral are found on the coast of Corsica. Beautiful marble of all kinds is one of the chief productions of Italy.

VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS, BY SEA AND LAND. Besides the rich vegetable productions mentioned under the article of soil, Italy produces citrons, and such quantities of chesnuts, cherries, plums, and other fruits, that they are of little value to the proprietors.

There is little difference between the animal productions of Italy, either by land or sea, and those of France and Germany already mentioned.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS. Authors are greatly divided on the head of Italian population. This may be owing, in a great measure, to the partiality which every Italian has for the honour of his own province. The number of the king of Sardinia's subjects in Italy is about 2,300,000. The city of Milan itself, by the best accounts, contains 300,000, and the duchy is proportionably populous. As to the other provinces of Italy, geographers and travellers have paid very little attention to the numbers of natives that live in the country, and inform us by conjecture only of those who inhabit the great cities. Some doubts have arisen whether Italy is as populous now as it was in the time of Pliny, when it contained 14,000,000 of inhabitants. I am apt to believe that the present inhabitants exceed that number. The Campagna di Roma, and some other of the most beautiful parts of Italy, are at present in a manner desolate; but we are to consider that the modern Italians are in a great measure free from the unintermitting wars, not to mention the transmigration of colonies, which formerly, even down to the 16th century, depopulated their country. Add to this, that the princes and states of Italy now encourage agriculture and manufactures of all kinds, which undoubtedly promotes population; so that it may not perhaps be extravagant, if we assign to Italy 20,000,000 of inhabitants; but some calculations greatly exceed that number *. The Italians are generally well proportioned, and have such meaning in their looks, that they have greatly assisted the ideas of their painters. The women are well-shaped, and very amorous. The marriage ties, especially of the better sort, are said to be of very little value in Italy. Every wife has been represented to have her gallant or cicisbeo, with whom she keeps company, and sometimes cohabits, with very little ceremony, and no offence on either side. But this practice is chiefly remarkable at Venice; and indeed the representations which have been made of this kind by travellers, appear to have been much exaggerated. With regard to the modes of life, the best quality of a modern Italian is sobriety, and they submit very patiently to the public government. With great taciturnity, they discover but little reflection. They are rather vindictive than brave, and more superstitious than devout. The middling ranks are attached to their native customs, and seem to have no ideas of improvement. Their fondness for greens, fruits, and vegetables of all kinds, contributes to their contentment and satisfaction; and an Italian gentleman or peasant can be luxurious at a very small expence. Though perhaps all Italy does not contain many descendants of the ancient Romans, yet the present inhabitants speak of themselves as successors of the conquerors of the world, and look upon the rest of mankind with contempt.

* Mr. Swinburne saith, that in 1779, the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Naples, amounted to 4,249,430, exclusive of the army and naval establishments.

The

The dreſs of the Italians is little different from that of the neighbouring countries, and they affect a medium between the French volatility and the ſolemnity of the Spaniards. The Neapolitans are commonly dreſſed in black, in compliment to the Spaniards. It cannot be denied that the Italians excel in fine arts: though they make at preſent but a very inconſiderable figure in the ſciences. They cultivate and enjoy vocal muſic at a very dear rate, by emaſculating their males when young; to which their mercenary parents agree without remorſe.

The Italians, the Venetians eſpecially, have very little or no notion of the impropriety of many cuſtoms that are conſidered as criminal in other countries. Parents, rather than their ſons ſhould throw themſelves away by unſuitable marriages, or contract diſeaſes by promiſcuous amours, hire miſtreſſes for them, for a month, or a year, or ſome determined time; and concubinage, in many places of Italy, is an avowed licenſed trade. The Italian courtezans, or *bona robas*, as they are called, make a kind of profeſſion in all their cities. Maſquerading and gaming, horſe races without riders, and converſations or aſſemblies, are the chief diverſions of the Italians, excepting religious exhibitions, in which they are pompous beyond all other nations.

A modern writer, deſcribing his journey through Italy, gives us a very unfavourable picture of the Italians and their manner of living. Give what ſcope you pleaſe to your fancy, ſays he, you will never imagine half the diſagreeableneſs that Italian beds, Italian cooks, and Italian naſtineſs, offer to an Engliſhman. At Turin, Milan, Venice, Rome, and perhaps two or three other towns, you meet with good accommodations; but no words can expreſs the wretchedneſs of the other inns. No other beds than thoſe of ſtraw, with a mattreſs of ſtraw, and next to that a dirty ſheet, ſprinkled with water, and conſequently damp: for a covering, you have another ſheet as coarſe as the firſt, like one of our kitchen jack-towels, with a dirty coverlit. The bedſtead conſiſts of four wooden forms or benches. An Engliſh peer and peereſs muſt lie in this manner, unleſs they carry an upholſterer's ſhop with them. There are, by the bye, no ſuch things as curtains; and in all their inns the walls are bare, and the floor has never once been waſhed ſince it was firſt laid. One of the moſt indelicate cuſtoms here is, that men and not women, make the ladies' beds, and would do every office of a maid-ſervant, if ſuffered. They never ſcour their pewter; their knives are of the ſame colour. In theſe inns they make you pay largely, and ſend up ten times as much as you can eat. The ſoup, like waſh, with pieces of liver ſwimming in it; a plate full of brains fried in the ſhape of fritters; a diſh of livers and gizzards; a couple of fowls (always killed after your arrival) boiled to rags, without any the leaſt kind of ſauce or herbage: another fowl, juſt killed, ſtewed as they call it; then two more fowls, or a turkey, roaſted to rags. All over Italy, on the roads, the chickens and fowls are ſo ſtringy, you may divide the breaſt into as many filaments as you can a halfpenny-worth of thread. Now and then we get a little piece of mutton or veal; and, generally ſpeaking, it is the only eatable morſel that falls in our way. The bread all the way is exceedingly bad; and the butter ſo rancid, that it cannot be touched, or even borne within the reach of your ſmell. But what is a greater evil to travellers than any of the above recited, are the infinite numbers of gnats, bugs, fleas, and lice, which infeſt us by day and night.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Italians is Roman catholic. The inquiſition here is little more than a ſound; and perſons of all religions live unmoleſted in Italy, provided no groſs inſult is offered to their worſhip. In the introduction, we have given an account of the riſe and eſtabliſhment of

Popery

Popery in Italy, from whence it ſpread over all Europe; likewiſe of the cauſes and ſymptoms of its decline. The eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy has employed many volumes in deſcribing it. The cardinals, who are next in dignity to his Holineſs, are ſeventy: but that number is ſeldom or never complete: they are appointed by the pope, who takes care to have a majority of Italian cardinals, that the chair may not be removed from Rome, as it was once to Avignon in France, the then pope being a Frenchman. In promoting foreign prelates to the cardinalſhip, the pope regulates himſelf according to the nomination of the princes who profeſs that religion. His chief miniſter is the cardinal patron, generally his nephew, or near relation, who improves the time of the pope's reign by amaſſing what he can. When met in a conſiſtory, the cardinals pretend to control the pope, in matters both ſpiritual and temporal, and have been ſometimes known to prevail. The reign of a pope is ſeldom of long duration, being generally old men at the time of their election. The conclave is a ſcene where the cardinals principally endeavour to diſplay their parts, and where many tranſactions paſs which hardly ſhow their inſpiration to be from the Holy Ghoſt. During the election of a pope, in 1721, the animoſities ran ſo high, that they came to blows with both their hands and feet, and threw the ink ſtandiſhes at each other. We ſhall here give an extract from the creed of pope Pius IV, 1560, before his elevation to the chair which contains the principal points wherein the church of Rome differs from the proteſtant churches. After declaring his belief in one God, and other heads wherein Chriſtians in general are agreed, he proceeds as follows:

"I moſt firmly admit and embrace the apoſtolical and eccleſiaſtical traditions, and all other conſtitutions of the church of Rome.

"I do admit the holy ſcriptures in the ſame ſenſe that holy mother-church doth, whoſe buſineſs it is to judge of the true ſenſe and interpretation of them; and I will interpret them according to the unanimous conſent of the fathers.

"I do profeſs and believe that there are ſeven ſacraments of the law, truly and properly ſo called, inſtituted by Jeſus Chriſt our Lord, and neceſſary to the ſalvation of mankind, though not all of them to every one; namely, baptiſm, confirmation, euchariſt, penance, extreme unction, orders, and marriage, and that they do confer grace; and that of theſe, baptiſm, confirmation and orders, may not be repeated without ſacrilege. I do alſo receive and admit the received and approved rites of the catholic church in her ſolemn adminiſtration of the aboveſaid ſacraments.

"I do embrace and receive all and every thing that hath been defined and declared by the holy council of Trent* concerning original ſin and juſtification.

"I do alſo profeſs that in the maſs there is offered unto God a true, proper, and propitiatory ſacrifice for the quick and the dead; and that in the moſt holy ſacrament of the euchariſt there is truly, really, and ſubſtantially, the body and blood, together with the ſoul and divinity, of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt; and that there is a converſion made of the whole ſubſtance of the bread into the body, and of the whole ſubſtance of the wine into the blood; which converſion the catholic church calls Tranſubſtantiation. I confeſs that under one kind only, whole and entire, Chriſt and a true ſacrament is taken and received.

* A convocation of Roman-catholic cardinals, archbiſhops, biſhops, and divines, who aſſembled at Trent, by virtue of a bull from the pope, anno 1546, and devoted to him, to determine upon certain points of faith, and to ſuppreſs what they were pleaſed to term the Riſing Hereſies in the church.

"I do

"I do firmly believe that there is a purgatory; and that the ſouls kept priſoners there do receive help by the ſuffrages of the faithful.

"I do likewiſe believe that the ſaints reigning together with Chriſt are to be worſhipped and prayed unto: and that they do offer up prayers unto God for us: and that their relics are to be had in veneration.

"I do moſt firmly aſſert that the images of Chriſt, of the bleſſed Virgin the mother of God, and of other ſaints, ought to be had and retained, and that due honour and veneration ought to be given unto them *.

"I do likewiſe affirm, that the power of indulgences was left by Chriſt to the church, and that the uſe of them is very beneficial to Chriſtian people †.

"I do acknowledge the holy catholic, and apoſtolical Roman church to be the mother and miſtreſs of all churches: and I do promiſe and ſwear

* An Engliſh traveller, ſpeaking of a religious proceſſion ſome years ago at Florence, in Italy, deſcribes it as follows: I had occaſion, ſays he, to ſee a proceſſion, where all the nobleſſe of the city attended in their coaches. It was the anniverſary of a charitable inſtitution in favour of poor maidens, a certain number of whom are portioned every year. About two hundred of theſe virgins walked in proceſſion, two and two together. They were preceded and followed by an irregular mob of penitents, in ſack-cloth, with lighted tapers, and monks carrying crucifixes, bawling and bellowing the litanies; but the greateſt object was the figure of the Virgin Mary, as big as the life, ſtanding within a gilt frame, dreſſed in a gold ſtuff, with a large hoop, a great quantity of falſe jewels, her face painted and patched, and her hair frizzled and curled in the very extremity of the faſhion. Very little regard had been paid to the image of our Saviour on the croſs; but when the Lady Mother appeared on the ſhoulders of three or four luſty friars, the whole populace fell upon their knees in the dirt.

† A long liſt of indulgences, or fees of the pope's chancery, may be ſeen in a book printed 150 years ago, by the authority of the then pope. It has been tranſlated into Engliſh, under the title of *Rome a great Cuſtom-houſe for Sin*; from which we ſhall give a few extracts.

ABSOLUTIONS.

For him that ſtole holy or conſecrated things out of a holy place, 10s. 6d.
For him who lays with a woman in the church, 9s.
For a layman for *murdering* a layman, 7s. 6d.
For him that killeth his father, mother, wife or ſiſter, 10s. 6d.
For laying violent hands on a *clergyman*, ſo it be without effuſion of blood, 10s. 6d.
For a prieſt that keeps a concubine; as alſo his diſpenſation for being irregular, 10s. 6d.
For him that layeth with his *own mother, ſiſter*, or *godmother*, 7s. 6d.
For him that *burns* his neighbour's houſe, 12s.
For him that forgeth the pope's hand, 1l. 7s.
For him that forgeth letters apoſtolical, 1l. 7s.
For him that takes two holy orders in one day, 2l. 6s.
For a king for going to the holy ſepulchre without licence, 7l. 10s.

DISPENSATIONS.

For a baſtard to enter all holy orders, 18s.
For a man or woman that is found hanged, that they may have Chriſtian burial, 1l. 7s. 6d

LICENCES.

For a layman to change his vow of going to Rome to viſit the apoſtolic churches, 18s.
To eat fleſh and white meats in Lent and other faſting days, 10s. 6d.
That a king or queen ſhall enjoy ſuch indulgences, as if they went to Rome, 15l.
For a queen to adopt a child, 300l.
To marry in times prohibited, 2l 5s.
To eat fleſh in times prohibited, 1l. 4s.
Not to be tied to faſting days, 1l. 4s.
For a town to take out of a church them (murderers) that have taken ſanctuary therein, 4l. 10s.

FACULTIES.

To abſolve all delinquents, 3l.
To diſpenſe with irregularities, 3l.

true

true obedience to the biſhop of Rome, the ſucceſſor of St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles, and vicar of Jeſus Chriſt.

"I do undoubtedly receive and profeſs all other things which have been delivered, defined, and declared by the ſacred canons and œcumenical councils, and eſpecially by the holy ſynod of Trent. And all other things contrary thereto, and all hereſies condemned, rejected, and anathematiſed by the church, I do likewiſe condemn, reject, and anathematiſe."

ARCHBISHOPRICS.] There are thirty eight archbiſhoprics in Italy, but the ſuffragans annexed to them are too indefinite and arbitrary for the reader to depend upon, the pope creating or ſuppreſſing them as he pleaſes.

LANGUAGE.] The Italian language is remarkable for its ſmoothneſs, and the facility with which it enters into muſical compoſitions. The ground-work of it is Latin, and it is eaſily maſtered by a good claſſical ſcholar. Almoſt every ſtate in Italy has a different dialect; and the prodigious pains taken by the literary ſocieties there, may at laſt fix the Italian into a ſtandard language. At preſent, the Tuſcan ſtyle and writing is moſt in requeſt.

The Lord's prayer runs thus: *Padre noſtro che ſei nel cielo, ſià ſanctificato il tuo nome; il tuo regno venga; la tua volunta ſia fatta, ſic come in cielo coſi anche in terra: dacci oggi il noſtro pane cotidiano; e rimettici i noſtri debita, ſic come noi ancora rimettiamo a' noſtri debitori; e non inducici in tentatione, ma liberaci dal maligno; percioche tuo è il regno, e la potenzo, e la gloria in ſempiterno.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN, PAINTERS, STATUARIES, ARCHITECTS, AND ARTISTS.] In the introduction ſome of the great men which ancient Italy has produced. In modern times, that is, ſince the revival of learning, ſome Italians have ſhone in controverſial learning, but they are chiefly celebrated by bigots of their own perſuaſion. The mathematics and natural philoſophy owe much to Galileo, Toricelli, Malphighi, Borelli, and ſeveral other Italians. Strada is an excellent hiſtorian; and the hiſtory of the council of Trent, by the celebrated father Paul, is a ſtandard work. Guicciardini, Bentivoglio, and Divila, have been much commended as hiſtorians by their ſeveral admirers. Machiavel is equally famous as an hiſtorian, and as a political writer. His comedies have much merit; and the liberality of his ſentiments, for the age in which he lived, is amazing. Among the proſe writers in the Italian language, Boccace has been thought one of the moſt pure and correct in point of ſtyle: he was a very natural painter of life and manners, but his productions are too licentious. Petrarch, who wrote both in Latin and Italian, revived among the moderns the ſpirit and genius of ancient literature: but among the Italian poets, Dante, Arioſto, and Taſſo, are the moſt diſtinguiſhed. There are ſaid to be upwards of a thouſand comedies in the Italian language, though not many that are excellent: but Metaſtaſio has acquired a great reputation by writing dramatic pieces ſet to muſic. Sanazarius, Fracaſtorius, Bembo, Vida, and other natives of Italy, have diſtinguiſhed themſelves by the elegance, correctneſs, and ſpirit of their Latin poetry, many of their compoſitions not yielding to the claſſics themſelves. Socinus, who was ſo much diſtinguiſhed by his oppoſition to the doctrine of the Trinity, was a native of Italy.

The Italian painters, ſculptors, architects, and muſicians, are unrivalled, not only in their numbers, but their excellencies. The revival of learning, after the ſack of Conſtantinople by the Turks, revived taſte likewiſe, and gave mankind a reliſh for truth and beauty in deſign and colouring. Raphael from his own ideas, aſſiſted by the ancients, ſtruck out a new creation with his pencil, and ſtill ſtands at the head of the painting art. Mi-

chael Angelo Buonaroti united in his own perſon, painting, ſculpture, and architecture. The colouring of Titian has perhaps never yet been equalled. Bramante, Bernini, and many other Italians, carried ſculpture and architecture to an amazing height. Julio Romano, Correggio, Caraccio, Veroneſe, and others, are, as painters, unequalled in their ſeveral manners. The ſame may be ſaid of Corelli, and other Italians, in muſic. At preſent Italy cannot juſtly boaſt of any paramount genius in the fine arts.

UNIVERSITIES.] Thoſe of Italy are, Rome, Venice, Florence, Mantua, Padua, Parma, Verona, Milan, Pavia, Bologna, Ferrara, Piſa *, Naples, Salerno, and Peruſia.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Italy is the native country of all that is ſtupendous, great, or beautiful, either in ancient or modern times. A library may be filled by deſcriptions and delineations of all that is rare and curious in the arts; nor do the bounds of this work admit of enlarging upon this ſubject. We can give but a very brief account of thoſe objects that are moſt diſtinguiſhed either for antiquity or excellence.

The amphitheatres claim the firſt rank, as a ſpecies of the moſt ſtriking magnificence. There are at Rome conſiderable remains of that which was erected by Veſpaſian, and finiſhed by Domitian, called the Coliſſeo. Twelve thouſand Jewiſh captives were employed by Veſpaſian in this building; and it is ſaid to have been capable of containing eighty-ſeven thouſand ſpectators ſeated, and twenty thouſand ſtanding. The architecture of this amphitheatre is perfectly light, and its proportions are ſo juſt, that it does not appear near ſo large as it really is. But it has been ſtripped of all its magnificent pillars and ornaments, at various times, and by various enemies. The Goths, and other barbarians, began its deſtruction, and popes and cardinals have endeavoured to complete its ruin. Cardinal Farneſe, in particular, robbed it of ſome fine remains of its marble cornices, friezes, &c. and, with infinite pains and labour, got away what was practicable of the outſide caſing of marble, which he employed in building the palace of Farneſe. The amphitheatre of Verona, erected by the conſul Flaminius, is thought to be the moſt entire of any in Italy. There are forty-five rows of ſteps carried all round, formed of fine blocks of marble about a foot and a half high each, and above two feet broad. Twenty-two thouſand perſons may be ſeated here at their eaſe, allowing one foot and a half for each perſon. This amphitheatre is quite perfect, and has been lately repaired with the greateſt care, at the expence of the inhabitants. They frequently give public ſpectacles in it, ſuch as horſe-races, combats of wild beaſts, &c. The ruins of theatres and amphitheatres are alſo viſible in other places. The triumphal arches of Veſpaſian, Septimius Severus, and Conſtantine the Great, are ſtill ſtanding, though decayed. The ruins of the baths, palaces, and temples, anſwer all the ideas we can form of the Roman grandeur. The Pantheon, which is at preſent converted into a modern church, and which from its circular figure is commonly called the Rotunda, is more entire than any other Roman temple which is now remaining. There are ſtill left ſeveral of the niches which anciently contained the ſtatues of the Heathen deities. The outſide of the building is of Tivoli free-ſtone, and within it is incruſted with marble. The roof of the Pantheon is a round dome, without pillars, the diameter of which is a hundred and forty-four feet; and though it has no windows, but only a round aperture in the centre of this dome, it is very light in every part. The pavement conſiſts of large ſquare ſtones and porphyry, ſloping round to-

* Piſa hath 46 profeſſors.

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wards the centre, where the rain-water, falling down through the aperture on the top of the dome, is conveyed away by a proper drain covered with a ſtone full of holes. The colonade in the front, which conſiſts of ſixteen columns of granite, thirty-ſeven feet high, excluſive of the pedeſtals and capitals, each cut out of a ſingle block, and which are of the Corinthian order, can hardly be viewed without aſtoniſhment. The entrance of the church is adorned with columns forty-eight feet high, and the architrave is formed of a ſingle piece of granite. On the left hand, on entering the portico, is a large antique vaſe of Numidian marble; and in the area before the church is a fountain with an antique of porphyry. The pillars of Trajan and Antonine, the former 175 feet high, and the latter covered with inſtructive ſculptures, are ſtill remaining. A traveller forgets the devaſtations of the northern barbarians, when he ſees the roſtrated column erected by Duillius in commemoration of the firſt naval victory the Romans gained over the Carthaginians; the ſtatue of the wolf giving ſuck to Romulus and Remus, with viſible marks of the ſtroke of lightning, mentioned by Cicero; the very original braſs plates containing the laws of the twelve tables; and a thouſand other identical antiquities, ſome of them tranſmitted unhurt to the preſent times; not to mention medals, and the infinite variety of ſeals and engraved ſtones which abound in the cabinets of the curious. Many palaces, all over Italy, are furniſhed with buſts and ſtatues fabricated in the times of the republic and the higher empire.

The Appian, Flaminian, and Æmilian roads, the firſt 200 miles, the ſecond 130, and the third 50 miles in length, are in many places ſtill entire; and magnificent ruins of villas, reſervoirs, bridges, and the like, preſent themſelves all over the country of Italy.

The ſubterraneous conſtructions of Italy are as ſtupendous as thoſe above ground; witneſs the cloacæ, and the catacombs, or repoſitories for dead bodies, in the neighbourhood of Rome and Naples. It is not above 30 years ſince a painter's apprentice diſcovered the ancient city of Pæſtum or Poſidonia, in the kingdom of Naples, ſtill ſtanding; for ſo indifferent are the country people of Italy about objects of antiquity, that it was a new diſcovery to the learned. An inexhauſtible mine of curioſities are daily dug out of the ruins of Herculaneum, a city lying between Naples and Veſuvius, which in the reign of Nero was almoſt deſtroyed by an earthquake, and afterwards, in the firſt year of the reign of Titus, overwhelmed by a ſtream of the lava of Veſuvius. The melted lava in its courſe filled up the ſtreets and houſes in ſome places to the height of ſixty-eight feet above the tops of the latter, and in others one hundred and ten feet. This lava is now of a conſiſtency which renders it extremely difficult to be removed or cleared away: it is compoſed of bituminous particles, mixed with cinders, minerals, metallics, and vitrified ſandy ſubſtances, which all together form a cloſe and heavy maſs. In the revolution of ſo many ages, the ſpot it ſtood upon was entirely forgotten; but in the year 1713, upon digging into theſe parts, ſomewhat of this unfortunate city was diſcovered, and many antiquities were dug out: but the ſearch was afterwards diſcontinued, till the year 1736, when the king of Naples employed men to dig perpendicularly eighty feet deep, whereupon not only the city made its appearance, but alſo the bed of the river which ran through it. The temple of Jupiter was then brought to light, and the whole of the theatre. In the temple was found a ſtatue of gold, and the inſcription that decorated the great doors of entrance. In the theatre the fragments of a gilt chariot of bronze, with horſes of the ſame metal, likewiſe gilt: this had been placed over the principal door of entrance. They likewiſe found among

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the ruins of this city multitudes of ſtatues, buſtos, pillars, paintings, manuſcripts, furniture, and various utenſils, and the ſearch is ſtill continued. The ſtreets of the town appear to have been quite ſtraight and regular, the houſes well built, and much alike; ſome of the rooms paved with moſaic, other with fine marbles, others again with bricks, three feet long and ſix inches thick. It appears that the town was not filled up ſo unexpectedly with the melted lava, as to prevent the greateſt part of the inhabitants from eſcaping with many of the richeſt effects: for when the excavations were made, there was not more than a dozen ſkeletons found, and but little gold, ſilver, or precious ſtones.

The town of Pompeia was deſtroyed by the ſame eruption of Mount Veſuvius, which occaſioned the deſtruction of Herculaneum; but it was not diſcovered till near forty years after the diſcovery of Herculaneum. One ſtreet, and a few detached buildings of this town, have been cleared: the ſtreet is well paved with the ſame kind of ſtone of which the ancient roads are made, and narrow cauſeways are raiſed a foot and a half on each ſide for conveniency of foot paſſengers. Dr. Moore obſerves, that the ſtreet itſelf is not ſo broad as the narroweſt part of the Strand, and is ſuppoſed to have been inhabited by tradeſpeople. The traces of wheels of carriages are to be ſeen on the pavement. The houſes are ſmall, but give an idea of neatneſs and conveniency. The ſtucco on the walls is ſmooth and beautiful, and as hard as marble. Some of the rooms are ornamented with paintings, moſtly ſingle figures, repreſenting ſome animal. They are tolerably well executed, and a little water being thrown on them, the colours appear ſurpriſingly freſh. Moſt of the houſes are built on the ſame plan, and have one ſmall room from the paſſage, which is conjectured to have been the ſhop, with a window to the ſtreet, and a place which ſeems to have been contrived for ſhowing the goods to the greateſt advantage. In another part of the town is a rectangular building, with a colonade, towards the court, ſomething in the ſtyle of the Royal Exchange at London, but ſmaller. At a conſiderable diſtance from this, is a temple of the goddeſs Iſis, the pillars of which are of brick, ſtuccoed like thoſe of the guard-room; but there is nothing very magnificent in the appearance of this edifice. The beſt paintings hitherto found at Pompeia, are thoſe of this temple; they have been cut out of the walls, and removed to Portici. Few ſkeletons were found in the ſtreets of this town, but a conſiderable number in the houſes. In one apartment (ſays Mr. Sutherland) we ſaw the ſkeletons of 17 poor wretches, who were confined by the ancles in an iron machine. Many other bodies were found, ſome of them in circumſtances which plainly ſhow that they were endeavouring to eſcape, when the eruption overtook them.

With regard to modern curioſities in Italy, they are as bewildering as the remains of antiquity. Rome itſelf contains 300 churches, filled with all that is rare in architecture, painting, and ſculpture. Each city and town of Italy contains a proportionable number. The church of St. Peter at Rome, is the moſt aſtoniſhing, bold, and regular fabric, that ever perhaps exiſted; and when examined by the rules of art, it may be termed faultleſs. The houſe and chapel of Doretto is rich beyond imagination, notwithſtanding the ridiculous romance that compoſes its hiſtory.

The natural curioſities of Italy, though remarkable, are not ſo numerous as its artificial. Mount Veſuvius, which is five Italian miles diſtant from the city of Naples, and Mount Ætna, in Sicily, are remarkable for emitting fire from their tops. The declivity of Mount Veſuvius towards the ſea, is every where planted with vines and fruit trees, and it is equally fertile towards the bottom. The circumjacent plain affords a delightful

delightful proſpect, and the air is clear and wholeſome. The ſouth and weſt ſides of the mountain form very different views, being, like the top, covered with black cinders and ſtones. The height of Mount Veſuvius has been computed to be 3900 feet above the ſurface of the ſea. It hath been a volcano, beyond the reach of hiſtory or tradition. An animated deſcription of its ravages in the year 79, is given by the younger Pliny, who was a witneſs to what he wrote. From that time to the year 1631, its eruptions were but ſmall and moderate; however, then it broke out with accumulated fury and deſolated miles around. In 1694, was a great eruption, which continued near a month, when burning matter was thrown out with ſo much force, that ſome of it fell at thirty miles diſtance, and a vaſt quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, ran down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lay in its way. In 1707, when there was another eruption, ſuch quantities of cinders and aſhes were thrown out, that it was dark at Naples at noon-day. In 1767, a violent eruption happened, which is reckoned to be the 27th from that which deſtroyed Herculaneum, in the time of Titus. In the laſt eruption, the aſhes, or rather ſmall cinders, ſhowered down ſo faſt at Naples, that the people in the ſtreet were obliged to uſe umbrellas, or adopt ſome other expedient, to guard themſelves againſt them. The tops of the houſes and the balconies were covered with theſe cinders; and ſhips at ſea, twenty leagues from Naples, were covered with them, to the great aſtoniſhment of the ſailors. An eruption happened alſo in 1766, and another in 1779, which have been particularly deſcribed by Sir William Hamilton in the Philoſophical Tranſactions. It has been obſerved by a modern traveller, that though Mount Veſuvius often fills the neighbouring country with terror, yet as few things in nature are ſo abſolutely noxious as not to produce ſome good; even this raging volcano, by its ſulphureous and nitrous manure, and the heat of its ſubterraneous fires, contributes not a little to the uncommon fertility of the country about it, and to the profuſion of fruits and herbage with which it is every where covered. Beſides, it is ſuppoſed that open and active, the mount is leſs hoſtile to Naples, than it would be, if its eruptions were to ceaſe, and its ſtruggles confined to its own bowels, for then might enſue the moſt fatal ſhocks to the unſtable foundation of the whole diſtrict of Terra del Lavora *.

Mount Ætna is 10,954 feet in height, and has been computed to be 60 miles in circumference. It ſtands ſeparate from all other mountains, its figure its circular, and it terminates in a cone. The lower parts of it are very fruitful in corn and ſugar-canes; the middle abounds with woods, olive-trees, and vines: and the upper part is almoſt the whole year covered with ſnow. Its fiery eruptions have always rendered it famous: in one of theſe, which happened in 1669, fourteen towns and villages

* Sir William Hamilton, in his account of the earthquakes in Calabria Ultra, and Sicily from February 5th, to May, 1783, gives ſeveral reaſons for believing that they were occaſioned by the operation of a volcano, the ſeat of which lay deeper either under the bottom of the ſea, between Stromboli, and the coaſt of Calabria, or under the parts of the plain towards Oppido and Terra Nuova. He plainly obſerved a gradation in the damage done to the buildings, as alſo in the degree of mortality, in proportion as the countries were more or leſs diſtant from this ſuppoſed centre of the evil. One circumſtance he particularly remarked: if two towns were ſituated at an equal diſtance from this centre, the one on a hill, the other on the plain or in the bottom, the latter had always ſuffered greatly more by the ſhocks of the earthquakes, than the former; a ſufficient proof to him of the cauſe coming from beneath, as this muſt naturally have been productive of ſuch an effect.

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were deſtroyed, and there have been ſeveral terrible eruptions ſince that time. There is generally an earthquake before any great eruption. In 1693, the port-town of Catania was overturned, and 18,000 people periſhed.

Between the lakes Agnano and Puzzelli, there is a valley called Solfara, becauſe vaſt quantities of ſulphur are continually forced out of the cliffs by ſubterranean fires. The grotto del Cani is remarkable for its poiſonous ſteams, and is ſo called from their killing dogs that enter it, if forced to remain there. Scorpions, vipers, and ſerpents, are ſaid to be common in Apulia.

Among the natural curioſities of Italy, thoſe vaſt bodies of ſnow and ice, which are called the glaciers of Savoy, deſerve to be particularly mentioned. There are five glaciers which extend almoſt to the plain of the vale of Chamouny, and are ſeparated by wild foreſts, corn fields, and rich meadows; ſo that immenſe tracts of ice are blended with the higheſt cultivation, and perpetually ſucceed to each other, in the moſt ſingular and ſtriking viciſſitude. All theſe ſeveral vallies of ice, which lie chiefly in the hollows of the mountains, and are ſome leagues in length, unite together at the foot of Mont Blanc; the higheſt mountain in Europe, and probably of the ancient world. According to the calculations of M. de Luc, the height of this mountain above the level of the ſea, is 2391$\frac{1}{2}$ French toiſes, or 15,303 Engliſh feet. "I am convinced," ſays Mr. Coxe, "from the ſituation of Mont Blanc, from the height of the mountains around it, from its ſuperior elevation above them, and its being ſeen at a great diſtance from all ſides, that it is higher than any mountain in Switzerland: which, beyond a doubt is, next to Mont Blanc, the higheſt ground in Europe.

STATES OF ITALY, CONSTITUTION, AND CHIEF CITIES. Thus far, of Italy in general; but as the Italian ſtates are not, like the republics of Holland or Switzerland, or the empire of Germany, cemented by a political confederacy, to which every member is accountable, for every Italian ſtate has a diſtinct form of government, trade, and intereſts, I ſhall be obliged to take a ſeparate view of each, to aſſiſt the reader in forming an idea of the whole.

The duke of SAVOY, or, as he is now ſtyled, king of SARDINIA, taking his royal title from that iſland, is a powerful prince in Italy, of which he is called the Janus, or keeper, againſt the French. His capital, Turin, is ſtrongly fortified, and one of the fineſt cities in Europe; but the country of Savoy is mountainous and barren, and its natives are forced to ſeek their bread all over the world. They are eſteemed a ſimple, but very honeſt people. The king is ſo abſolute, that his revenues conſiſt of what he pleaſes to raiſe upon his ſubjects. His ordinary income, beſides his own family provinces, cannot be leſs than 500,000l. ſterling, out of which he maintains 15,000 men in time of peace. During a war, when aſſiſted by foreign ſubſidies, he can bring to the field 40,000 men. The aggrandizement of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, is chiefly owing to England, to whom, by his ſituation, he was eſteemed a natural ally, for the preſervation of the balance of power in Europe.

The MILANESE, belonging to the houſe of Auſtria, is a moſt formidable ſtate, and formerly gave law to all Italy, when under the government of its own dukes. The fertility and beauty of the country are almoſt incredible. Milan, the capital, and its citadel, is very ſtrong, and furniſhed with a magnificent cathedral, in the Gothic taſte, which contains a very rich treaſury, conſiſting chiefly of eccleſiaſtical furniture, compoſed of gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones. The revenue of the duchy is above

300,000l. annually, which is ſuppoſed to maintain an army of 30,000 men. The natives are fond of literary and political aſſemblies, where they converſe almoſt on all ſubjects. With all its natural and acquired advantages, the natives of Milan make but few exports; ſo that its revenue, unleſs the Court of Vienna ſhould purſue ſome other ſyſtem of improvement, cannot be much bettered. The duchy of Mantua being now incorporated with it, the province is to take the name of Auſtrian Lombardy.

The republic of GENOA, is vaſtly degenerated from its ancient power and opulence, though the ſpirit of trade ſtill continues among its nobility and citizens. Genoa is a moſt ſuperb city*, and contains ſome very magnificent palaces, particularly thoſe of Doria †, and Durazzo. The inhabitants of diſtinction dreſs in black, in a plain, if not an uncouth manner, perhaps to ſave expences. Their chief manufactures are velvets, damaſks, gold and ſilver tiſſues, and paper. The city of Genoa contains about 150,000 inhabitants (but ſome writers greatly diminiſh that number) among whom are many rich trading individuals. Its maritime power is dwindled down to ſix gallies. The chief ſafety of this republic conſiſts in the jealouſy of other European powers, becauſe to any one of them it would be a moſt valuable acquiſition. The common people are wretched beyond expreſſion, as is the ſoil of its territory. Near the ſea ſome parts are tolerably well cultivated. The government of Genoa is ariſtocratical, being veſted in the nobility; the chief perſon is called the doge, or duke; to which dignity no perſon is promoted till he is fifty years of age. Every two years a new doge is choſen, and the former is incapable during five years of holding the ſame poſt again. The doge gives audience to ambaſſadors, all orders of government are iſſued in his name, and he is allowed a body-guard of two hundred Germans.

VENICE is one of the moſt celebrated republics in the world, on account both of its conſtitution and former power. It is compoſed of ſeveral fine provinces on the continent of Italy, ſome iſlands in the Adriatic, and part of Dalmatia. The city of Venice ‡ is ſeated on 72 iſlands at the bottom of the north end of the Adriatic ſea, and is ſeparated from the continent by a marſhy lake of five Italian miles in breadth, too ſhallow for large ſhips to navigate, which forms its principal ſtrength. Venice preſerves the veſtiges of its ancient magnificence, but is in every reſpect degenerated, except in the paſſion which its inhabitants ſtill retain for muſic and mummery during their carnivals. They ſeem to have loſt their ancient taſte for painting and architecture, and to be returning to Gothiciſm. They have had, however, lately ſome ſpirited differences with the court of Rome, and ſeem to be diſpoſed to throw off their obedience to its head. As to the conſtitution of the republic, it was originally democratical, the magiſtrates being choſen by a general aſſembly of the people, and ſo continued for one hundred and fifty years; but various changes afterwards took place: doges, or dukes, were appointed, who were inveſted with great power, which they often groſsly abuſed, and ſome of them were aſſaſſinated by the people. By degrees a body of hereditary legiſlative nobility was formed; continued and progreſſive encroachments

* Genoa is governed by a doge. Ellarame Paliavicino was elected July 30, 1789.

† Andrew Doria, the head of this family, famous for his military exploits, and the deliverer of Genoa, was born in the territory of Genoa, in the year 1468; he was offered the ſovereignty of the ſtate, but refuſed it, and gave to the people that republican form of government which ſtill ſubſiſts; he lived to the age of 93, the refuge and friend of the unfortunate.

‡ Venice was made a free-port on the 11th of May, 1736, governed by a doge (Ludovico Manani, who was elected on March 9, 1789) and the nobility.

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were made on the rights of the people, and a complete ariſtocracy was at length eſtabliſhed upon the ruins of the ancient popular government. The nobility are divided into ſix claſſes, amounting in the whole to 2500, each of whom, when twenty-five years of age, has a right to be a member of the grand council. Theſe elect a doge, or chief magiſtrate, in a peculiar manner by ballot, which is managed by gold and ſilver balls. The doge is inveſted with great ſtate, and with emblems of ſupreme authority, but has very little power, and is not permitted to ſtir from the city without the permiſſion of the grand council. The government and laws are managed by different councils of the nobles.

The college, otherwiſe called the ſeignory, is the ſupreme cabinet council of the ſtate, and alſo the repreſentative of the republic. This court gives audience, and delivers anſwers, in the name of the republic, to foreign ambaſſadors, to the deputies of towns and provinces, and to the generals of the army. It alſo receives all requeſts and memorials on ſtate affairs, ſummons the ſenate at pleaſure, and arranges the buſineſs to be diſcuſſed in that aſſembly. The council often takes cogniſance of ſtate crimes, and has the power of ſeizing accuſed perſons, examining them in priſon, and taking their anſwers in writing, with the evidence againſt them. But the tribunal of ſtate inquiſitors, which conſiſts only of three members, and which is in the higheſt degree deſpotic in its manner of proceeding, has the power of deciding, without appeal, on the lives of every citizen belonging to the Venetian ſtate; the higheſt of the nobility, even the doge himſelf, not being excepted. To theſe three inquiſitors, is given the right of employing ſpies, conſidering ſecret intelligence, iſſuing orders to ſeize all perſons whoſe words or actions they think reprehenſible, and afterwards trying them, and ordering them to be executed, when they think proper. They have keys to every apartment of the ducal palace, and can, whenever they pleaſe, penetrate into the very bed-chamber of the doge, open his cabinet, and examine his papers: and, of courſe, they may command acceſs to the houſe of every individual in the ſtate. They continue in office only one year, but are not reſponſible afterwards for their conduct whilſt they were in authority. So much diſtruſt and jealouſy are diſplayed by this government, that the noble Venetians are afraid of having any intercourſe with foreign ambaſſadors, or with foreigners of any kind, and are even cautious of viſiting at each other's houſes.

All the orders of Venetian nobility are dreſſed in black gowns, large wigs, and caps which they hold in their hands. The ceremony of the doge's marrying the Adriatic once a year, by dropping into it a ring from his bucentaur or ſtate barge, attended by thoſe of all the nobility, is the moſt ſuperb exhibition in Venice, but not comparable, for magnificence, to a lord mayor's ſhow. The inhabitants of Venice are ſaid to amount to 200,000. The grandeur and convenience of the city, particularly the public palaces, the treaſury, and the arſenal, are beyond expreſſion. Over the ſeveral canals of Venice, are laid near 500 bridges, the greateſt part of which are ſtone. The Venetians ſtill have ſome manufactures in ſcarlet cloth, gold and ſilver ſtuffs, and, above all, fine looking glaſſes, all which bring in a conſiderable revenue to the owners; that of the ſtate, annually, is ſaid to amount to 8,000,000 of Italian ducats, each valued at twenty-pence of our money. Out of this are defrayed the expences of the ſtate, and the pay of the army, which, in the time of peace, conſiſts of 16,000 regular troops (always commanded by a foreign general) and 10,000 militia. They keep up a ſmall fleet for curbing the inſolencies of the piratical ſtates of Barbary, and they have among them

ſome orders of knighthood, the chief of which are thoſe of the *Stola d'oro*, ſo called from the robe they wear, which is conferred only on the firſt quality, and the military order of St. Mark; of which in the proper place.

In eccleſiaſtical matters, the Venetians have two patriarchs; the authority of one reaches over all the provinces, but neither of them have much power; and both of them are choſen by the ſenate; and all religious ſects, even the Mahometan and Pagan, excepting proteſtants, are here tolerated in the free exerciſe of their religion.

The Venetians are a lively, ingenious people, extravagantly fond of public amuſements, with an uncommon reliſh for humour. They are in general tall and well made; and many fine manly countenances are met with in the ſtreets of Venice, reſembling thoſe tranſmitted to us by the pencils of Paul Veroneſe, and Titian. The women are of a fine ſtyle of countenance, with expreſſive features, and are of an eaſy addreſs. The common people are remarkably ſober, obliging to ſtrangers, and gentle in their intercourſe with each other. As it is very much the cuſtom to go about in maſks at Venice, and great liberties are taken during the time of the carnival, an idea has prevailed, that there is much more licentiouſneſs of manners here than in other places: but this opinion ſeems to have been carried too far. Great numbers of ſtrangers viſit Venice during the time of the carnival, and there are eight or nine theatres here, including the opera houſes.

The dominions of Venice conſiſt of a conſiderable part of Dalmatia, of four towns in Greece, and of the Iſlands of Corfu, Pachfu, Antipachfu, Santa Maura, Curzolari, Val di Compare, Cephalonia, and Zante. The Venetian territories in Italy, contain the duchy of Venice, the Paduaneſe, the peninſula of Rovigo, the Veroneſe, the territories of Vicenſa and Breſcia, the diſtricts of Bergamo, Cremaſco, and the Marca Trevigiana, with part of the country of Friuli. The ſubjects of the Venetian republic are not oppreſſed: the ſenate has found that mild treatment, and good uſage, are the beſt policy, and more effectual than armies, in preventing revolts.

The principal city of TUSCANY, is Florence, which is now poſſeſſed by a younger branch of the houſe of Auſtria, after being long held by the illuſtrious houſe of Medicis, who made their capital the cabinet of all that is valuable, rich, and maſterly, in architecture, literature, and the arts, eſpecially thoſe of painting and ſculpture. It is thought to contain above 70,000 inhabitants. The beauties and riches of the grand duke's palaces have been often deſcribed; but all deſcription falls ſhort of their contents, ſo that, in every reſpect, it is reckoned, after Rome, the ſecond city in Italy. The celebrated Venus of Medici, which, take it all in all, is thought to be the ſtandard of taſte, in female beauty and proportion, ſtands in a room called the Tribunal. The inſcription on its baſe, mentions its being made by Cleomenes, an Athenian, the ſon of Apollodorus. It is of white marble, and ſurrounded by other maſter-pieces of ſculpture, ſome of which are ſaid to be the works of Praxiteles, and other Greek maſters. Every corner of this beautiful city, which ſtands between mountains covered with olive-trees, vineyards, and delightful villas, and divided by the Arno, is full of wonders, in the arts of painting, ſtatuary, and architecture. It is a place of ſome ſtrength, and contains an archbiſhop's ſee, and an univerſity. The inhabitants boaſt of the improvements they have made in the Italian tongue, by means of their Academia della Cruſca; and ſeveral other academies are now eſtabliſhed at Florence.

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Though the Florentines affect great ſtate, yet their nobility and gentry drive a retail trade in wine, which they ſell from their cellar windows, and ſometimes they even hang out a broken flaſk, as a ſign where it may be bought. They deal, beſides wine and fruits, in gold and ſilver ſtuffs.---Upon the acceſſion of the archduke Peter Leopold, afterwards emperor of Germany, to this duchy, a great reformation was introduced, both into the government and manufactures, to the great benefit of the finances. It is thought that the great duchy of Tuſcany could bring to the field, upon occaſion, 30,000 fighting men, and that its preſent revenues are above 500,000l. a year. The other principal towns of Tuſcany are Piſa, Leghorn, and Sienna: the firſt and laſt are much decayed; but Leghorn is a very handſome city, built in the modern taſte, and with ſuch regularity, that both gates are ſeen from the market-place. It is well fortified, having two forts towards the ſea, beſides the citadel. The ramparts afford a very agreeable proſpect of the ſea, and of many villas on the land ſide. Here all nations, and even the Mahometans, have free acceſs, and may ſettle. The number of inhabitants is computed at 40,000, among whom are ſaid to be 20,000 Jews, who live in a particular quarter of the city, have a handſome ſynagogue; and, though ſubject to very heavy impoſts, are in a thriving condition, the greateſt part of the commerce of this city going through their hands.

The inhabitants of Lucca, which is a ſmall free commonwealth, lying on the Tuſcan ſea, in a moſt delightful plain, are the moſt induſtrious of all the Italians. They have improved their country into a beautiful garden, ſo that though they do not exceed 120,000, their annual revenue amounts to 80,000l. ſterling. Their capital is Lucca, which contains about 40,000 inhabitants, who deal in mercery goods, wines, and fruits, eſpecially olives. This republic is under the protection of the emperor. The vicinity of the grand duchy of Tuſcany keeps the people of Lucca conſtantly on their guard, in order to preſerve their freedom; for in ſuch a ſituation, an univerſal concord and harmony can alone enable them to tranſmit to poſterity the bleſſings of their darling Liberty, whoſe name they bear on their arms, and whoſe image is not only impreſſed on their coin, but alſo on the city gates, and all their public buildings. It is alſo obſervable, that the inhabitants of this little republic, being in poſſeſſion of freedom, appear with an air of cheerfulneſs and plenty, ſeldom to be found among thoſe of the neighbouring countries.

The republic of St. Marino is here mentioned as a geographical curioſity. Its territories conſiſt of a high, craggy mountain, with a few eminences at the bottom, and the inhabitants boaſt of having preſerved their liberties, as a republic, for 1300 years. It is under the protection of the pope; and the inoffenſive manners of the inhabitants, who are not above 5000 in all, with the ſmall value of their territory, have preſerved its conſtitution.

The duchy and city of Parma, together with the duchies of Piacentia and Guaſtalla, now form one of the moſt flouriſhing ſtates in Italy of its extent. The ſoils of Parma and Placentia are fertile, and produce the richeſt fruits and paſturages, and contain conſiderable manufactures of ſilk. It is the ſeat of a biſhop's ſee, and an univerſity; and ſome of its magnificent churches are painted by the famous Correggio. The preſent duke * of Parma is a prince of the houſe of Bourbon, and ſon to the late Don Philip, the king of Spain's younger brother. This country

* Ferdinand, duke of Parma, born Jan. 20, 1751; married to the archduchеſs Maria-Amelia-Joſepha, June 27, 1769. Their iſſue are, a prince and two princeſſes.

was, ſome years paſt, the ſeat of a bloody war between the Auſtrians, Spaniards, and Neapolitans. The cities of Parma and Placentia are enriched with magnificent buildings; but his catholic majeſty, on his acceſſion to the throne of Naples, is ſaid to have carried with him thither the moſt remarkable pictures and moveable curioſities. The duke's court is thought to be the politeſt of any in Italy; and it is ſaid that his revenues exceed 100,000l. ſterling a year, a ſum rather exaggerated. The city of Parma is ſuppoſed to contain 50,000 inhabitants.

MANTUA, formerly a rich duchy, bringing to its own dukes 500,000 crowns a year, is now much decayed. The government of it is annexed to that of the Milaneſe, in poſſeſſion of the houſe of Auſtria. The capital is one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes in Europe, and contains about 16,000 inhabitants, who boaſt that Virgil was a native of their country. By an order of the emperor, in 1785, this duchy is incorporated with that of Milan into one province, and is now called Auſtrian Lombardy.

The duchy of MODENA (formerly Mutina) is ſtill governed by its own duke *, the head of the houſe of Eſte, from whom the family of Brunſwic deſcended. The duke is abſolute within his own dominions, which are fruitful. The duke is under the protection of the houſe of Auſtria, and is a vaſſal of the empire. His dominions are far from being flouriſhing, though very improveable, they having been alternately waſted by the late belligerent powers in Italy.

The ECCLESIASTICAL STATE, which contains Rome, formerly the capital of the world, lies about the middle of Italy. The bad effects of popiſh tyranny, ſuperſtition, and oppreſſion, are here ſeen in the higheſt perfection. Thoſe ſpots, which under the maſters of the world were formed into ſo many terreſtrial paradiſes, ſurrounding their magnificent villas, and enriched with all the luxuries that art and nature could produce, are now converted into noxious peſtilential marſhes and quagmires; and the Campagna di Roma, that formerly contained a million of inhabitants, would afford, at preſent, of itſelf, but a miſerable ſubſiſtence to about five hundred. Notwithſtanding this, the pope † is a conſiderable temporal prince; and ſome ſuppoſe that his annual revenue amounts to above a million ſterling: other authors calculate it to be much higher. When we ſpeak comparatively, the ſum of a million ſterling is too high a revenue to ariſe from his territorial poſſeſſions: his accidental income, which formerly far exceeded that ſum, is now diminiſhed, by the ſuppreſſion of the order of the Jeſuits, from whom he drew vaſt ſupplies, and the meaſures taken by the popiſh powers, for preventing the great eccleſiaſtical iſſues of money to Rome. According to the beſt and lateſt accounts, the taxes upon the proviſions and lodgings furniſhed to foreigners, who ſpend immenſe ſums in viſiting his dominions, form now the greateſt part of his accidental revenues. From what has happened within theſe thirty years paſt, there is reaſon to believe that the pope's territories will be reduced to the limits which the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon ſhall pleaſe to preſcribe. Some late popes have aimed at the improvement of their territories, but their labours have had no great effect. This diſcouragement of induſtry and agriculture ſeems to be interwoven in the conſtitu-

* Hercules-Renaud, duke of Modena, born Nov. 22, 1727; married April 16, 1741, to the princeſs of Maſſa Carara. Their iſſue, Mary-Beatrix, born April 29, 1750; married to Ferdinand, archduke of Auſtria, 1771.

† His holineſs, pope Pius VI (formerly count Braſchi) was born at Caſena, Dec. 27, 1717; created a cardinal in 1773, and elected pope, Feb. 15, 1775.

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tion of the papal government, which is veſted in proud lazy eccleſiaſtics. Their indolence, and the fanaticiſm of their worſhip, infect their inferiors, who prefer begging, and impoſing upon ſtrangers, to induſtry and agriculture, eſpecially as they muſt hold their properties by the precarious tenure of the will of their ſuperiors. In ſhort, the inhabitants of many parts of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate muſt periſh through their ſloth, did not the fertility of their ſoil ſpontaneouſly afford them ſubſiſtence. However, it may be proper to make one general remark on Italy, which is, that the poverty and ſloth of the lower ranks do not take their riſe from their natural diſpoſitions.

This obſervation is not confined to the papal dominions. The Italian princes affected to be the patrons of all the curious and coſtly arts, and each vied with the other to make his court the repoſitory of taſte and magnificence. This paſſion diſabled them from laying out money upon works of public utility, or from encouraging the induſtry, or relieving the wants of their ſubjects: and its miſerable effects are ſeen in many parts of Italy. The ſplendour and furniture of churches in the papal dominions are inexpreſſible, and partly account for the miſery of the ſubjects. But this cenſure admits of exceptions, even in a manner at the gates of Rome.

Modern Rome contains, within its circuit, a vaſt number of gardens and vineyards. I have already touched upon its curioſities and antiquities. It ſtands upon the Tyber, an inconſiderable river when compared to the Thames, and navigated by ſmall boats, barges, and lighters. The caſtle of St. Angelo, though its chief fortreſs, would be found to be a place of ſmall ſtrength, were it regularly beſieged. The city ſtanding upon the ruins of ancient Rome, lies much higher, ſo that it is difficult to diſtinguiſh the ſeven hills on which it was originally built. When we conſider Rome as it now ſtands, there is the ſtrongeſt reaſon to believe that it exceeds ancient Rome itſelf in the magnificence of its ſtructures: nothing in the old city, when miſtreſs of the world, could come in competition with St. Peter's church; and perhaps many other churches in Rome exceed, in beauty of architecture, and value of materials, utenſils, and furniture, her ancient temples; though it muſt be acknowledged that the Pantheon muſt have been an amazing ſtructure. The inhabitants of Rome, in 1714, amounted to 143,000. If we conſider that the ſpirit of travelling is much increaſed ſince that time, we cannot reaſonably ſuppoſe them to be diminiſhed at preſent.

There is nothing very particular in the pope's temporal government at Rome. Like other princes, he has guards, or ſbirri, who take care of the peace of the city, under proper magiſtrates, both eccleſiaſtical and civil. The campagna di Roma, which contains Rome, is under the inſpection of his holineſs. In the other provinces he governs by legates and vice-legates. He monopoliſes all the corn in his territories, and has always a ſufficient number of troops on foot, under proper officers, to keep the provinces in awe. Pope Clement XIV wiſely diſclaimed all intention of oppoſing any arms to the neighbouring princes, but thoſe of prayers and ſupplications.

I have, under the head of religion, mentioned the eccleſiaſtical government of the papacy. As to the rota, and other ſubordinate chambers of this complicated juriſdiction, they are too numerous to be even named, and do not fall properly under my plan. Under a government ſo conſtituted, it cannot be ſuppoſed that the commercial exports of the eccleſiaſtical ſtate are of much value.

Next to Rome, Bologna, the capital of the Bolognese, is the most considerable city in the ecclesiastical state, and an exception to the indolence of its other inhabitants. The government is under a legate *à latere*, who is always a cardinal, and changed every three years. The people here live more sociably and comfortably than the other subjects of the pope; and perhaps their distance from Rome, which is 195 miles north-west, has contributed to their ease. The rest of the ecclesiastical state contains many towns celebrated in ancient history, and even now exhibiting the most striking vestiges of their flourishing state about the beginning of the 16th century; but they are at present little better than desolate, though here and there a luxurious magnificent church and convent may be found, which is supported by the toil and sweat of the neighbouring peasants.

The grandeur of Ferrara, Ravenna, Rimini, Urbino (the native city of the celebrated painter Raphael), Ancona, and many other states and cities, illustrious in former times, are now to be seen only in their ruins and ancient history. Loretto, on the other hand, an obscure spot never thought or heard of in times of antiquity, is now the admiration of the world, for the riches it contains, and the prodigious resort to it of pilgrims, aad other devotees, from a notion industriously propagated by the Romish clergy, that the house in which the Virgin Mary is said to have dwelt at Nazareth, was carried thither through the air by angels, attended with many other miraculous circumstances, such as that all the trees, on the arrival of the sacred mansion, bowed with the profoundest reverence; and great care is taken to prevent any bits of the materials of this house from being carried to other places, and exposed as relics, to the prejudice of Loretto. The image of the Virgin Mary, and of the divine infant, are of cedar, placed in a small apartment, separated from the others by a silver balustrade, which has a gate of the same metal. It is impossible to describe the gold chains, the rings and jewels, emeralds, pearls, and rubies, wherewith this image is or was loaded; and the angels of solid gold, who are here placed on every side, are equally enriched with the most precious diamonds. To the superstition of Roman catholic princes Loretto is indebted for this mass of treasure. It has been matter of surprise, that no attempt has yet been made by the Turks or Barbary states upon Loretto, especially as it is badly fortified, and stands near the sea; but it is now generally supposed, that the real treasure is withdrawn, and metals and stones of less value substituted in its place.

The king of Naples and Sicily, or, as he is more properly called, the king of the Two Sicilies (the name of Sicily being common to both), is possessed of the largest dominions of any prince in Italy, as they comprehend the ancient countries of Samnium, Campania, Apulia, Magna-Grecia, and the island of Sicily, containing in all about 32,000 square miles. They are bounded on all sides by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic, except on the north-east, where Naples terminates on the ecclesiastical state. The Apennine runs through it from north to south; and its surface is estimated at 3,500 square leagues. The air is hot, and its soil fruitful of every thing produced in Italy. The wines called Vino Greco, and Lachrymæ Christi, are excellent. The city of Naples, its capital, which is extremely superb, and adorned with all the profusion of art and riches, and its neighbourhood, would be one of the most delightful places in Europe to live in, were it not for their vicinity to the volcano of Vesuvius, which sometimes threatens the city with destruction, and the soil being pestered with insects and reptiles, some of which are venomous.

venomous. The houſes in Naples are inadequate to the population, but in general, are five or ſix ſtories in height, and flat at the top; on which are placed numbers of flower vaſes, or fruit-trees, in boxes of earth, producing a very gay and agreeable effect. Some of the ſtreets are very handſome, no ſtreet in Rome equals in beauty the Strada di Toledo, at Naples; and ſtill leſs can any of them be compared with thoſe beautiful ſtreets that lie open to the bay. The richeſt and moſt commodious convents in Europe, both for male and female votaries, are in this city; the moſt fertile and beautiful hills of the environs are covered with them: and a ſmall part of their revenue is ſpent in feeding the poor, the monks diſtributing bread and ſoup to a certain number every day before the doors of the convents.

Though above two thirds of the property of the kingdom are in the hands of the eccleſiaſtics, the proteſtants live here with great freedom; and though his Neapolitan majeſty preſents to his holineſs every year a palfrey, as an acknowledgment that his kingdom is a fief of the pontificate, yet no inquiſition is eſtabliſhed in Naples. The preſent revenues of that king amount to above 750,000l. ſterling a year; but it is more than probable that, by the new eſtabliſhed policy purſued by the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, of abridging the influence and revenues of the clergy, his Neapolitan majeſty's annual income will conſiderably exceed a million ſterling. The exports of the kingdom are legumes, hemp, anniſeeds, wool, oil, wine, cheeſe, fiſh, honey, wax, manna, ſaffron, gums, capers, macaroni, ſalt, pot-aſh, flax, cotton, ſilk, and divers manufactures. The king has a numerous but generally poor nobility, conſiſting of princes, dukes, marquiſſes, and other high-ſounding titles; and his capital, by far the moſt populous in Italy, contains at leaſt 350,000 inhabitants. Among theſe are about 30,000 lazaroni, or black-guards, the greater part of which have no dwelling-houſes, but ſleep every night in ſummer under porticos, piazzas, or any kind of ſhelter they can find, and in the winter or rainy time of the year, which laſts ſeveral weeks, the rain falling by pailfuls, they reſort to the caves under Capo di Monte, where they ſleep in crowds like ſheep in a pinfold. Thoſe of them who have wives and children, live in the ſuburbs of Naples, near Pauſilippo, in huts, or in caverns or chambers dug out of that mountain. Some gain a livelihood by fiſhing, others by carrying burthens to and from the ſhipping; many walk about the ſtreets ready to run on errands, or to perform any labour in their power for a very ſmall recompence. As they do not meet with conſtant employment, their wages are not ſufficient for their maintenance: but the deficiency is in ſome degree ſupplied by the ſoup and bread which are diſtributed at the doors of the convents.

But though there is ſo much poverty among the lower people, there is a great appearance of wealth among ſome of the great. The Neapolitan nobility are exceſſively fond of ſhow and ſplendour. This appears in the brilliancy of their equipages, the number of their attendants, the richneſs of their dreſs, and the grandeur of their titles. According to a late traveller (Mr. Swinburne) luxury of late hath advanced with gigantic ſtrides in Naples. Forty years ago, the Neapolitan ladies wore nets and ribbands on their heads, as the Spaniſh women do to this day, and not twenty of them were poſſeſſed of a cap: but hair plainly dreſt is a mode now confined to the loweſt order of inhabitants, and all diſtinction of dreſs between the wife of a nobleman and that of a citizen is entirely laid aſide. Expence and extravagance are here in the extreme.

Through every ſpot of the kingdom of Naples, the traveller may be ſaid to tread on claſſic ground, and no country preſents the eye with more beautiful

beautiful proſpects. There are ſtill traces of the memorable town of Cannæ, as fragments of altars, cornices, gates, walls, vaults, and under-ground granaries; and the ſcene of action between Hannibal and the Romans, is ſtill marked out to poſterity, by the name of *pezzo di ſangue*, "field of blood." Taranto, a city that was once the rival of Rome, is now remarkable for little elſe than its fiſheries. Sorento is a city placed on the brink of ſteep rocks, that overhang the bay, and of all the places in the kingdom, hath the moſt delightful climate. Nola, once famous for its amphitheatres, and as the place where Auguſtus Cæſar died, is now hardly worth obſervation.

Brundiſium, now Brindiſi, was the great ſupplier of oyſters for the Roman tables. It hath a fine port, but the buildings are poor and ruinous; and the fall of the Grecian empire under the Turks reduced it to a ſtate of inactivity and poverty, from which it hath not yet emerged. Except Rome, no city can boaſt of ſo many remains of ancient ſculpture as Benevento: here the arch of Trajan, one of the moſt magnificent remains of Roman grandeur, out of Rome, erected in the year 114, is ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Reggio hath nothing remarkable but a Gothic cathedral. It was deſtroyed by an earthquake before the Marſian war, and rebuilt by Julius Cæſar; part of the wall ſtill remains, and was very roughly handled by the earthquake in 1783, but not deſtroyed: only 126 loſt their lives out of 16,000 inhabitants. The ancient city of Oppido was entirely ruined by the earthquake of the 5th of February, and the greateſt force thereof ſeems to have been exerted near that ſpot, and at Caſal Nuova, and Terra Nuova. From Trupea to Squillace, moſt of the towns and villages were either totally or in part overthrown, and many of the inhabitants buried in the ruins. To aſcertain the extent of the ravages, Sir William Hamilton, who ſurveyed it, gives the following deſcription: "If on a map of Italy, and with your compaſſes on the ſcale of Italian miles, you were to meaſure off 22, and then fixing your central point in the city of Oppido (which appeared to me to be the ſpot on which the earthquake had exerted its greateſt force) form a circle (the radii of which will be, as I juſt ſaid, 22 miles) you will then include all the towns and villages that have been utterly ruined, and the ſpots where the greateſt mortality has happened, and where there have been the moſt viſible alterations on the face of the earth. Then extend your compaſſes on the ſame ſcale to 72 miles, preſerving the ſame centre, and form another circle, you will include the whole of the country that has any mark of having been effected by the earthquake."

The Iſland of SICILY, once the granary of the world for corn, ſtill continues to ſupply Naples, and other parts, with that commodity; but its cultivation, and, conſequently, fertility, is greatly diminiſhed. Its vegetable, mineral, and animal productions, are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of Italy.

Both the ancients and moderns have maintained, that Sicily was originally joined to the continent of Italy, but gradually ſeparated from it by the encroachments of the ſea, and the ſhocks of earthquakes, ſo as to become a perfect iſland. The climate of Sicily is ſo hot, that even in the beginning of January the ſhade is refreſhing: and chilling winds are only felt a few days in March, and then a ſmall fire is ſufficient to baniſh the cold. The only appearance of winter is found towards the ſummit of Mount Ætna, where ſnow falls, which the inhabitants have a contrivance for preſerving. Churches, convents, and religious foundations are extremely numerous here: the buildings are handſome, and the revenues conſiderable. If this iſland were better cultivated, and its government

more

more equitable, it would in many reſpects be a delightful place of reſidence. There are a great number of fine remains of antiquity here. Some parts of this iſland are remarkable for the beauty of the female inhabitants. Palermo, the capital of Sicily, is computed to contain 120,000 inhabitants. The two principal ſtreets, and which croſs each other, are very fine. This is ſaid to be the only town in all Italy which is lighted at night at the public expence. It carries on a conſiderable trade; as alſo did Meſſina, which, before the earthquake, in 1783, was a large and well-built city, containing many churches and convents, generally elegant ſtructures. By that earthquake a great part of the lower diſtrict of the city and of the port was deſtroyed, and conſiderable damage done to the lofty uniform buildings called the *Palazzata*, in the ſhape of a creſcent; but the force of the earthquake, though violent, was nothing at Meſſina or Reggio, to what it was in the plain, for of 30,000, the ſuppoſed population of the city, only 700 is ſaid to have periſhed. "The greateſt mortality fell upon thoſe towns and countries ſituated in the plain of Calabria Ultra, on the weſtern ſide of the mountains Dejo, Sacro, and Caulone. At Caſal Nuovo, the princeſs Gerace, and upwards of 4000 of the inhabitants, loſt their lives; at Bagnara, the number of dead amounts to 3017; Radicina and Palmi count their loſs at about 3000 each; Terra Nuova about 1400; Seminari ſtill more. The ſum total of the mortality in both Calabrias and in Sicily, by the earthquakes alone, according to the returns in the ſecretary of ſtate's office at Naples, is 32,367;" but Sir William Hamilton ſaith, he has good reaſon to believe, that, including ſtrangers, the number of lives loſt muſt have been conſiderably greater; 40,000 at leaſt may be allowed, he believes, without exaggeration.

The iſland of SARDINIA, which gives a royal title to the duke of Savoy, lies about 150 miles weſt of Leghorn, and hath ſeven cities or towns. Its capital, Cagliari, is an univerſity, an archbiſhopric, and the ſeat of the viceroy, containing about 15,000 inhabitants. It is thought that his Sardinian majeſty's revenues, from this iſland, do not exceed 5000l. ſterling a year, though it yields plenty of corn and wine, and has a coral fiſhery. Its air is bad, from its marſhes and high mountains on the North, and therefore was a place of exile for the Romans. It was formerly annexed to the crown of Spain, but at the peace of Utrecht it was given to the emperor, and in 1719, to the houſe of Savoy.

The iſland of CORSICA lies oppoſite to the Genoeſe continent, between the gulf of Genoa and the iſland of Sardinia, and is better known by the noble ſtand which the inhabitants made for their liberty, againſt their Genoeſe tyrants, and afterwards againſt the baſe and ungenerous efforts of the French to enſlave them, than from any advantages they enjoy, from nature or ſituation. Though mountainous and woody, it produces corn, wine, figs, almonds, cheſnuts, olives, and other fruits. It has alſo ſome cattle and horſes, and is plentifully ſupplied, both by ſea and rivers, with fiſh. The inhabitants are ſaid to amount to 120,000. Baſtia, the capital, is a place of ſome ſtrength; though other towns of the iſland that were in poſſeſſion of the malecontents, appear to have been but poorly fortified.

CAPRI, the ancient CAPREA, is an iſland to which Auguſtus Cæſar often came for his health and recreation, and which Tiberius made a ſcene of the moſt infamous pleaſures. It lies three Italian miles from that part of the main land which projects fartheſt into the ſea. It extends four miles in length from Eaſt to Weſt, and about one in breadth. The weſtern part is, for about two miles, a continued rock, vaſtly high, and inacceſſible

inacceſſible next the ſea; yet Ano Capri, the largeſt town of the iſland, is ſituated here; and in this part are ſeveral places covered with a very fruitful ſoil. The eaſtern end of the iſland alſo riſes up in precipices that are nearly as high, though not quite ſo long, as the weſtern. Between the rocky mountains, at each end, is a ſlip of lower ground that runs acroſs the iſland, and is one of the pleaſanteſt ſpots that can eaſily be conceived. It is covered with myrtles, olives, almonds, oranges, figs, vineyards, and corn-fields, which look extremely freſh and beautiful, and afford a moſt delightful little landſcape, when viewed from the tops of the neighbouring mountains. Here is ſituated the town of Caprea, two or three convents, and the biſhop's palace. In the midſt of this fertile tract riſes a hill, which in the reign of Tiberius was probably covered with buildings, ſome remains of which are ſtill to be ſeen. But the moſt conſiderable ruins are at the very extremity of the eaſtern promontory.

From this place there is a very noble proſpect; on one ſide of it the ſea extends farther than the eye can reach; juſt oppoſite is the green promontory of Sarentum, and on the other ſide the bay of Naples.

Ischia, and ſome other iſlands on the coaſts of Naples and Italy, have nothing to diſtinguiſh them but the ruins of their antiquities, and their being now beautiful ſummer retreats for their owners. Elba hath been renowned for its mines from a period beyond the reach of hiſtory. Virgil and Ariſtotle mention it. Its ſituation is about ten miles ſouth-weſt from Tuſcany, and 80 miles in circumference, containing near 7000 inhabitants. It is divided between the king of Naples, to whom Porto Longone belongs, and the great duke of Tuſcany, who is maſter of Porto Ferraio, and the prince of Piombino. The fruits and wine of the iſland are very good, and the tunnery, fiſheries, and ſalt, produce a good revenue.

I ſhall here mention the iſle of Malta, though it is not properly ranked with the Italian iſlands. It was formerly called Melita, and is ſituated in 15 degrees E. long. and 36 degrees N. lat. 60 miles ſouth of Cape Paſſaro in Sicily, and is of an oval figure, 20 miles long, and 12 broad. Its air is clear, but exceſſively hot; the whole iſland ſeems to be a white rock covered with a thin ſurface of earth, which is however amazingly productive of excellent fruits and vegetables, and garden-ſtuff of all kinds. This iſland *, or rather rock, was given to the knights of St. John of Jeruſalem in 1530, by the emperor Charles V, when the Turks drove them out of Rhodes, under the tender of one falcon yearly to the viceroy of Sicily, and to acknowledge the kings of Spain and Sicily for their protectors: they are now known by the diſtinction of the knights of Malta. They are under vows of celibacy and chaſtity; but they keep the former much better than the latter. They have conſiderable poſſeſſions in the Roman catholic countries, on the continent, and are under the government of a grand-maſter, who is elected for life. The lord-prior of the order, was formerly accounted the prime baron in England. The knights are in number 1000: 500 are to reſide on the iſland, the remainder are in their ſeminaries in other countries, but at any ſummons are to make perſonal appearance. They had a ſeminary in England, till it was ſuppreſſed by Henry VIII, but they now give to one the title of grand prior of England. They are conſidered as the bulwark of Chriſtendom againſt the Turks on that ſide. They wear the badge of the order, a gold croſs of eight points enamelled white, pendant to a black watered ribband at the breaſt, and the badge is decorated ſo, as to diſtinguiſh the country of the

* The iſland of Malta is governed by a grand maſter.

knight. They are generally of noble families, or ſuch as can prove their gentility for ſix deſcents, and are ranked according to their nations. There are ſixteen called the great-croſſes, out of whom the officers of the order, as the marſhal, admiral, chancellor, &c. are choſen. When the great-maſter dies, they ſuffer no veſſel to go out of the iſland till another is choſen, to prevent the pope from interfering in the election. Out of the ſixteen great-croſſes the great-maſter is elected, whoſe title is, "The moſt illuſtrious, and moſt reverend prince the lord friar A. B. great-maſter of the hoſpital of St. John of Jeruſalem, prince of Malta and Gaza." All the knights are ſworn to defend the church, to obey their ſuperiors, and to live on the revenues of their order only. Not only their chief town Valletta, or Malta, and its harbour, but the whole iſland is ſo well fortified, as to be deemed impregnable. On the 18th of September there is an annual proceſſion at Malta in memory of the Turks raiſing the ſiege on that day 1563, after four months aſſault, leaving their artillery, &c. behind.

ARMS AND ORDERS.] The chief armorial bearings in Italy are as follow: The pope, as ſovereign prince over the land of the church, bears for his eſcutcheon, gules, conſiſting of a long headcape, or, ſurmounted with a croſs, pearled and garniſhed with three royal crowns, together with the two keys of St. Peter, placed in ſaltier. The arms of Tuſcany, or five roundles, gules, two, two, and one, and one in chief, azure, charged with three flower-de-Luce, or. Thoſe of Venice, azure, a lion winged, ſegant, or, holding under one of his paws a book covered, argent. Thoſe of Genoa, argent, a croſs, gules, with a crown cloſed for the iſland of Corſica; and for ſupporters, two griffins, or. The arms of Naples, are, azure, ſemée of flower-de-Luce, or, with a label of five points, gules.

The "order of St. *Januarius*," was inſtituted by the preſent king of Spain, when king of Naples, in July, 1738. The number of knights is limited to thirty, and after the preſent ſovereign, that office of the order is to be poſſeſſed by the kings of Naples. All the knights muſt prove the nobility of their deſcent for four centuries, and are to be addreſſed by the title of excellency. St. Januarius, the celebrated patron of Naples, is the patron of this order. The "order of *Annunciation*" was inſtituted in the year 1355, by Amadeus V, count of Savoy, in memory of Amadeus I, who bravely defended Rhodes againſt the Turks, and won thoſe arms which are now borne by the dukes of Savoy: "gules, a croſs argent." It is counted among the moſt reſpectable orders in Europe: the knight muſt be of a noble family, but alſo a papiſt. In the year 1572, Emanuel Philibert, duke of Savoy, inſtituted the "order of *St. Lazarus*," and revived and united the obſolete order of *St. Maurice* to it; which was confirmed by the pope, on the condition of maintaining two gallies againſt the Turks.

In the year 828 it is pretended that the body of St. Mark was removed from Alexandria, in Egypt, to Venice. Accordingly, this ſaint hath been taken for their tutelar ſaint and guardian, and his picture was formerly painted on their enſigns and banners. When the "order of *St. Mark*" was firſt inſtituted is uncertain, but it is an honour conferred by the doge or duke of Venice and the ſenate, on perſons of eminent quality, or who have done ſome ſignal ſervice to the republic. The knights, when made, if preſent, are dubbed with a ſword on their ſhoulders, the duke ſaying "*Eſto miles fidelis*" (be a faithful ſoldier) Abſent perſons are inveſted by letters patent; but their title, "*Knights of St. Mark*," is merely honorary: they have no revenue, nor are they under any obligation by vows

vows as other orders. About the year 1460, Frederick III, emperor of Germany, inſtituted the order "of *St. George*," and dedicated it to St. George tutelar ſaint and patron of Genoa. The doge is perpetual grand-maſter. The badge, a plain croſs enamelled, gules, pendant to a gold chain and wore about their necks. The croſs is alſo embroidered on their clokes. In the year 1561, Caſimir of Medicis, firſt grand-duke of Tuſcany, inſtituted the "order of *St. Stephen*," in memory of a victory which ſecured to him the ſovereignty of that province. He and his ſucceſſors were to be the grand-maſters. The knights are allowed to marry, and their two principal conventual houſes are at Piſa. It is a religious as well as military order, but the knights of juſtice and the eccleſiaſtics are obliged to make proof of nobility of four deſcents. They wear a red croſs with right angles, orled or, on the left ſide of their habit, and on their mantle.

The "order of the *Holy Ghoſt*" was founded with their chief ſeat, the hoſpital of that name in Rome, by pope Innocent III, about the year 1198. They have a grand-maſter, and profeſs obedience, chaſtity, and poverty. Their revenue is eſtimated at 24,000 ducats daily, with which they entertain ſtrangers, relieve the poor, train up deſerted children, &c. Their enſign is a white patriarchal croſs with 12 points, ſewed on their breaſt on the left ſide of a black mantle. The "order of *Jeſus Chriſt*," inſtituted by pope John XXII, was reformed and improved by pope Paul V. The reigning pope was to be always ſovereign of it, and was deſigned as a mark of diſtinction for the pope's Italian nobility, but on account of its frequent proſtitution, hath fallen into diſcredit. The "order of the *Golden Spur*" is ſaid to have been inſtituted by pope Pius IV, 1559, and to have been connected with the "order of Pius," inſtituted a year afterwards; but the badges were different. The knights of Pius are ſuppreſſed, and all that the knights of the Golden Spur have preſerved to themſelves, is the title of counts of the ſacred palace of the Lateran. The badge is a ſtar of eight points, white, and between the two bottom points, a ſpur, gold.

HISTORY.] Italy was probably firſt peopled from Greece, as we have mentioned in the introduction, to which we refer the reader for the ancient hiſtory of this country, which for many ages, gave law to the then known world, under the Romans.

The empire of Charlemagne, who died in 814, ſoon experienced the ſame fate with that of Alexander. Under his ſucceſſors it was in a ſhort time entirely diſmembered. His ſon, Louis the Debonair, ſucceeded to his dominions in France and Germany, while Bernard, the grandſon of Charlemagne, reigned over Italy and the adjacent iſlands. But Bernard having loſt his life by the cruelty of his uncle, againſt whom he had levied war, and Louis himſelf dying in 840, his dominons were divided among his ſons Lothario, Louis, and Charles. Lothario, with the title of emperor, retained Italy, Provence, and the fertile countries ſituated between the Saone and the Rhine; Louis had Germany; and France fell to the ſhare of Charles, the youngeſt of the three brothers. Shortly after this, Italy was ravaged by different contending tyrants; but in 964, Otho the Great re-united Italy to the Imperial dominions. Italy afterwards ſuffered much by the conteſts between the popes and the emperors; it was haraſſed by wars and internal diviſions; and at length various principalities and ſtates were erected under different heads.

Savoy and Piedmont, in time, fell to the lot of the counts of Maurienne, the anceſtors of his preſent Sardinian majeſty, whoſe father

became

became king of Sardinia, in virtue of the quadruple alliance concluded in 1718*.

The great duchy of Tuſcany belonged to the emperors of Germany, who governed it by deputies to the year 1240, when the famous diſtinctions of the Guelphs, who were the partizans of the pope, and the Gibellines, who were in the emperor's intereſt, took place. The popes then perſuaded the imperial governors in Tuſcany to put themſelves under the protection of the church; but the Florentines, in a ſhort time formed themſelves into a free commonwealth, and bravely defended their liberties againſt both parties by turns. Faction at laſt ſhook their freedom; and the family of Medici, long before they were declared either princes or dukes, in fact governed Florence, though the rights and privileges of the people ſeemed ſtill to exiſt. The Medici, particularly Coſmo, who was deſervedly called the Father of his country, being in the ſecret, ſhared with the Venetians in the immenſe profits of the Eaſt-India trade, before the diſcoveries made by the Portugueſe. His revenue in ready money, which exceeded that of any ſovereign prince in Europe, enabled his ſucceſſors to riſe to ſovereign power; and pope Pius V gave one of his deſcendants, Coſmo (the great patron of the arts) the title of great-duke of Tuſcany in 1570, which continued in his family to the death of Gaſton de Medicis in 1737, without iſſue. The great-duchy was then claimed by the emperor Charles VI, as a fief of the empire, and given to his ſon-in-law, the duke of Lorrain (afterwards emperor, and father of Joſeph II) in lieu of the duchy of Lorrain which was ceded to France by treaty. Leopold his ſecond ſon (brother and ſucceſſor to the emperor Joſeph II) upon the death of his father, became grand-duke. When he ſucceeded to the Imperial crown, his ſon Ferdinand entered upon the ſovereignty of the great-duchy of Tuſcany, who has now ſucceeded his father in the empire of Germany. Leghorn, which belongs to him, carries on a great trade: and ſeveral ſhips of very conſiderable force are now ſtationed on the Tuſcan coaſts to prevent the depredations of the infidels.

No country has undergone greater viciſſitudes of government than Naples or Sicily, chiefly owing to the inconſtancy of the natives, which ſeems to be incorporated with their air. Chriſtians and Saracens by turns conquered it. The Normans under Tancred drove out the Saracens, and by their connections with the Greeks, eſtabliſhed there, while the reſt of Europe was plunged in monkiſh ignorance, a moſt reſpectable monarchy flouriſhing in arts and arms. About the year 1166, the popes being then all-powerful in Europe, their intrigues broke into the ſucceſſion of Tancred's line, and Naples and Sicily at laſt came into the poſſeſſion of the

* Charles-Emanuel-Ferdinand-Maria, king of Sardinia, and duke of Savoy, born May 24, 1751; married in 1775 to Maria Adelheid, ſiſter to Louis XVI, the late unfortunate king of the French.

Brothers and ſiſters of the king.

1. Maria-Joſepha-Louiſa, born September 2, 1753; married to the count de Provence, vid. France.
2. Maria-Thereſa, born Jan. 31, 1756: married to the count d'Artois, vid. France.
3. Anna-Maria-Carolina, born December 17, 1757.
4. Victor-Emanuel-Cajetan duc d'Aoſte, born July 24, 1759; married April 25, 1789, Maria-Thereſa, niece to the preſent emperor.
5. Maurice-Joſeph-Maria, duc de Monſerrat, born September 12, 1762.
6. Maria-Charlotta, born January 17, 1764.
7. Charles-Joſeph, duc de Genevois, born April 6, 1765.
8. Joſeph-Benedict, comte de Maurienne, born October 5, 1766.

French; and the houſe of Anjou, with ſome interruptions and tragical revolutions, held it till the Spaniards drove them out in 1504, and it was then annexed to the crown of Spain.

The government of the Spaniards under the Auſtrian line, was ſo oppreſſive, that it gave riſe to the famous revolt, headed by Maſſaniello, a young fiſherman, without ſhoes or ſtockings, in the year 1647. His ſucceſs was ſo ſurpriſing, that he obliged the haughty Spaniards to aboliſh the oppreſſive taxes, and to confirm the liberties of the people. Before theſe could be re-eſtabliſhed perfectly, he turned delirious, through his continual agitations of body and mind, and he was put to death at the head of his own mob. Naples and Sicily continued with the Spaniards till the year 1700, when the extinction of the Auſtrian line opened a new ſcene of litigation. In 1706, the archduke Charles, afterwards emperor, took poſſeſſion of the kingdom. By virtue of various treaties, which had introduced Don Carlos, the king of Spain's ſon, to the poſſeſſion of Parma and Placentia, a new war broke out in 1733, between the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon, about the poſſeſſion of Naples; and Don Carlos was received into the capital, where he was proclaimed king of both Sicilies: this was followed by a very bloody campaign, but the farther effuſion of blood was ſtopt by a peace between France and the emperor, to which the courts of Madrid and Naples at firſt demurred, but afterwards acceded in 1736, and Don Carlos remained king of Naples. Upon his acceſſion to the crown of Spain, in 1759, it being found, by the inſpection of phyſicians, and other trials, that his eldeſt ſon was by nature incapacitated for reigning, and his ſecond being heir apparent to the Spaniſh monarchy, he reſigned the crown of Naples to his third ſon, Ferdinand IV, who married an archduchefs of Auſtria*.

The Milaneſe, the faireſt portion in Italy, went through ſeveral hands; the Vicontis were ſucceeded by the Galeazzos and the Sforzas, but fell at laſt into the hands of the emperor Charles V, about the year 1525, who gave it to his ſon, Philip II, king of Spain. It remained with that crown till the French were driven out of Italy, in 1703, by the Imperialiſts. They were diſpoſſeſſed of it in 1745; but by the emperor's ceſſion of Naples and Sicily to the preſent king of Spain, it returned to the houſe of Auſtria, who governs it by a viceroy.

The duchy of Mantua was formerly governed by the family of Gonzaga, who adhering to France, the territory was forfeited, as a fief of the empire, to the houſe of Auſtria, which now poſſeſſes it, the laſt duke dying without male iſſue; but Guaſtella was ſeparated from it in 1748, and made part of the duchy of Parma.

The firſt duke of Parma was natural ſon to pope Paul III, the duchy having been annexed to the holy ſee, in 1545, by pope Julius II. The deſcendants of the houſe of Farneſe terminated in the late queen dowager of Spain, whoſe ſon, his preſent catholic majeſty, obtained the duchy, and his nephew now holds it, with the duchy of Placentia.

* Ferdinand IV, king of the two Sicilies, third ſon of his late Catholic Majeſty, the king of Spain, born Jan. 12, 1751; aſcended the throne October 5, 1759; and married April 7, 1768, to the archduchefs Maria-Carolina-Louiſa, ſiſter to the late emperor, by whom he has had iſſue 15 children, 10 of whom are living: among whom are,

1. Maria-Thereſa, preſent empreſs of Germany, born June 6, 1772.
2. Thereſa-Clementine, born November 23, 1775; married, September 17, 1790, the archduke Ferdinand.
3. Francis-Janarius, prince royal, born Auguſt 17, 1777; married Maria-Clementina, the archduchefs, September, 1790.

The Venetians were formerly the moſt formidable maritime power in Europe. In 1194, they conquered Conſtantinople itſelf, and held it for ſome time, together with great part of the continent of Europe and Aſia. They were more than once brought to the brink of deſtruction, by the confederacies formed againſt them among the other powers of Europe, eſpecially by the league of Cambray, in 1509, but were as often ſaved by the diſunion of the confederates. The diſcovery of a paſſage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, gave the firſt blow to their greatneſs, as it loſt them the Indian trade. By degrees the Turks took from them their moſt valuable poſſeſſions on the continent; and ſo late as the year 1715 they loſt the Morea.

The Genoeſe for ſome time diſputed the empire of the Mediterranean ſea with the Venetians, but were ſeldom, or never, able to maintain their own independency by land, being generally protected, and ſometimes ſubjected, by the French and Imperialiſts. Their doge, or firſt magiſtrate, uſed to be crowned king of Corſica, though it does not clearly appear by what title: that iſland is now ceded to the French by the Genoeſe. The ſucceſsful effort they made in driving the victorious Auſtrians out of their capital, during the war, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, has few parallels in hiſtory, and ſerves to ſhow the effect of deſpair under oppreſſion. At preſent, they are poſſeſſed of revenue barely ſufficient to preſerve the appearance of a ſovereign ſtate.

The hiſtory of the Papacy is connected with that of Chriſtendom itſelf. The moſt ſolid foundations for its temporal power were laid by the famous Matilda, counteſs of Tuſcany, and heireſs to the greateſt part of Italy, who bequeathed a large portion of her dominions to the famous pope Gregory VII (who, before his acceſſion in 1073, was ſo well known by the name of Hildebrand). It is not to be expected that I am here to enter into a detail of the ignorance of the laity, and the other cauſes that operated to the aggrandizement of the papacy, previous to the reformation. Even ſince that æra, the ſtate of Europe has been ſuch, that the popes have had more than once great weight in its public affairs, chiefly through the weakneſs and bigotry of temporal princes, who ſeem now to be recovering from their religious deluſions.

The papal power is evidently now at a low ebb. The order of Jeſus, who were not improperly called its Janizaries, has been exterminated out of France, Spain, Naples, and Portugal; and is but juſt tolerated in other popiſh countries. The pope himſelf is treated by Roman Catholic princes with very little more ceremony than is due to him as biſhop of Rome, and poſſeſſed of a temporal principality. This humiliation, it is reaſonable to believe, will terminate in a total ſeparation from the holy ſee of all its foreign emoluments, which even, ſince the beginning of the preſent century, were immenſe, and to the reducing his holineſs to the exerciſe of his eccleſiaſtical functions as firſt biſhop of Chriſtendom: The pope has ſent a vehement memorial to moſt European courts, againſt the conduct of the French aſſembly in reſuming Avignon, and the Comtat Venaiſſin: but the pontiff's memorials are now as little regarded as his bulls; and the papal power is falling with increaſing velocity.

John Angelo Braſchi, born in 1717, was elected pope in 1775, and took upon him the name of Pius VI.

TURKEY.

The Grand Signior's dominions are divided into

		Sq. Miles.
1.	TURKEY IN EUROPE.	
2.	TURKEY IN ASIA.	960,060
3.	TURKEY IN AFRICA.	

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	1000	between	17 and 40 East long.
Breadth	900		36 and 49 North lat.

Containing 181,400 ſquare miles, with 44 inhabitants to each;

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Ruſſia, Poland, and Sclavonia, on the North; by Circaſſia, the Black Sea, the Propontis, Helleſpont, and Archipelago, on the Eaſt; by the Mediterranean, on the South; by the ſame ſea, and the Venetian and Auſtrian territories, on the Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the north coaſt of the Black Sea are The provinces of	Crim and little Tartary, and the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus *	Precop, Brachiſeria, Kaffa	26,200
	Budziac Tartary	Oczakow	12,000
North of the Danube are the provinces of	Beſſarabia —	Bender	8,000
		Belgorod	
	Moldavia, olim Dacia —	Jazy, Choczim, Falczin	26,000
	Walachia, another part of the ancient Dacia	Tergoviſo	15,500
South of the Danube are —	Bulgaria, the eaſt part of the ancient Myſia —	Widin, Nicopoli, Siliſtra, Scopia	17,000
	Servia, the weſt part of Myſia —	Belgrade, Semendria, Niſſa	22,570
	Boſnia, part of the ancient Illyricum	Seraio	8,640

* The Ruſſians, in 1783, ſeized on the Crimea, the principal part of this diviſion, and by treaty, ſigned January 9, 1784. the Turks ceded it to them, with the Iſle of Taman, and that part of Cuban which is bounded by the river of that name. The Turks have now only the Tartar nations beyond the river Cuban, and from the Black Sea.

On

Plate XVIII.

TURKEY in EUROPE and HUNGARY

Hungarian Miles 13 ⅓ to a Degree.

5 10 20 30 40

British Statute Miles.

25 50 100 150 200

East Longitude 1 8 from London 2 3 4 3 6 3 8

TURKEY in EUROPE and HUNGARY

GERMANY
POLAND
RUSSIA
HUNGARY
TRANSYLVANIA
MOLDAVIA
WALACHIA
BESSARABIA
BUDZIAC TARTARY
LITTLE TARTARY
CRIMEA
SEA of AZOPH
CIRCASSIA
KUBAN
BLACK SEA
TURKEY IN ASIA
NATOLIA
EUROPE
ROMANIA
BULGARIA
THESSALY
EPIRUS
ACHAIA
MOREA
CANDIA
ARCHIPELAGO
IONIAN SEA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
GULF OF VENICE
DALMATIA
CROATIA
SCLAVONIA
BOSNIA
SERVIA
CARINTHIA
STYRIA
MORLACHIA

VIENNA, Presburg, Agria, Comorra, Raab, BUDA, Peſt, Debreczin, Great Waradin, Colocza, Kanisba, Segedin, Baja, Siget, Arad, Weiſſenburg, Temeſwar, Hermanſtadt, Claufenburg, Carolſtadt, Szombor, Poſega, Dubitz, Belgrade, Semendria, Serai, Moſtar, Hassan Pacha, Widin, Nagodin, Bencerti, Motru, Tergovile, Tergoyl, Huniad, Meadia, Compolongo, Folſtrilefta, Ribnico, Ploeſti, Sale, Buchorest, Plaueſti, Floreſti, Brancovani, Rusci, Codidria, Silistria, Rassowat, Baba, Baba Gulf, Mankalia, Prorat, Cararna, Varna, Czerna woda, Ruszig, Tchenga, Carnobat, Borgas, Emineli, Pirgos, Ternopo, Iovat, Philippopoli, Assarli, Hermanli, Adrianople, Ardra, Ardra R., Trajanopoli, Rodosto, Cypsela, Gallipoli, Dardanelles, Biga, Bursa, Nilomid, Erekli, Amasreh, Sinub, Terabezoun, C. Karenpi, C. Jasun, Samfoun Bay, Samsoun, Kudak, falls within this Space, Ingulgorod, Raskow, Mahilow, Choczim, Caminieck, Sniatyn, Dohopole, Radauz, Czernauczi, Dorohoi, Siret, Podul, Archangelscoi, Samara, Samara R., Tor, Dwina, Black Forest, Oczakow, Belgorod, Precop, Genicze, Temruk, Karadge, Kaffa, Karabazar, Kosleve, Brachiſeria, Tamen, Hercha, Turkmen, Kanalzc-boroun, Str.t of Zabache, Marai, Baba-kerman, Ismail, Mouths of the Danube, Renni, Ovidiopol, Pisco, Pruth R., Dniester R., Bog R., Niepr R., Don R., Kuban R., Kalon R., Jagorlik R., Sereth R., Aluta R., Temes R., Maros R., Theiſs R., Danube R., Save R., Drave R., Morava R., Kamenitz, Vihitz, Saniakiuk, Palazzi, Kutſchain, Zivornick, Hassan Pacha, Poſzega, Thar, Drenovaz, Valdin, Pechia, Pristina, Nissa, Chiprova, Vrana, Scopia, Scupi, Comanova, Iballi, Ochrida, Kupruhli, Stolb, Toli, Stobi, Idomene, Edissa, Cara Veria, Tricala, Salonichi, Polina, Vallona, Chimera, Durazzo, Petrella, Albasano, Alessio, Gulf of Manfredonia, Trani, Tarento, Lecce, Otranto, Gulf of Tarento, C. S.t Leuca, Corfu, Corfu I., Bastano, Cephalonia, Isle, I.S.t Maura, St Maura, Zante I., C. Spartivento, Silo, Parras, Corinth, Bebridere, Argos, Napoli de Romania, Arcadia, Militra, Modon, Coron, C. Gallo, C. Matapan, Cerigo, Cerigto, Gaza di Candia, C. Xacro, C. Salomon, C. Grio, Spada, Canea, Candia, Stanchia, Scarpanto, Rhodes I., Rhodes, Stanpalia, Santorin, Milo, Siphanto, Nio, Serpho, Thermia, Andros, Zia, Tino, Paros, Naxia, Nicaria, Samos I., Patmos, Lero, Mytilene, Scio, Smyrna, Scopoli I., Sciros, Lipsea I., Pergamos, Meander R., Maglaw, Gulf of Sambie, C. Chalcedon, Gulf of Mac., Gulf of Cos, Gulf of Venice, Gulf of Manfredonia, Gulf of Tarento, Ionian Sea, Mediterranean Sea, Sea of Marmor, Str.ts of Constantinople, The Bosphorus, Black Sea, Sea of Azoph, Sea of Kuban, Hungarian Miles 13 ⅓ to a Degree. 5 10 20 30 40, British Statute Miles. 25 50 100 150 200

East Longitude 18 from London 20 22 24 26 28 30 32 34 36 38

14 16 18 20 22 24 26 28 30 32 34 36 38 40 42

48 46 44 42 40 38 36

Divisions.	Subdivisions	Chief Towns.	Sq. M.
On the Bosphorus and Hellespont. —	Romania, olim Thrace	Constantinople, N. l. 41. E. l. 29 Adrianople	21,200
South of Mount Rhodope, or Argentum, the north part of the ancient Greece	Macedonia —	Strymon Contessa	18,980
	Thessaly, now Janua	Salonichi Larissa	4,650
	Achaia and Bœotia, now Livadia	Athens Thebes Lepanto	3,420
On the Adriatic sea or Gulf of Venice, the ancient Illyricum	Epirus —	Chimæra Burtinto Scodra	955
	Albania —	Durazzo Dulcigno	6,375
	Dalmatia —	Zara Narenza	4,560
	Ragusa Republic*	Ragusa	430
In the Morea, the ancient Peloponnesus, being the south division of Greece, are	Corinthia —	Corinth	7,220
	Argos —	Argos Napoli de Romania	
	Sparta —	Lacedæmon, now Misitra, on the river Eurotus	
	Olympia, where the Games were held.	Olympia, or Longinica, on the river Alpheus	
	Arcadia —	Modon Coron Partas	
	Elis	Elis, or Belvidere on the riv. Peneus.	

* The republic of Ragusa, though reckoned by geographers part of Turkey in Europe, is not under the Turkish government. It is an aristocratical state, formed nearly after the model of that of Venice. The government is in the hands of the nobility; and the chief of the republic, who is styled rector, is changed every month, and elected by scrutiny or lot. During his short administration, he lives in the palace, and wears a ducal habit. As the Ragusans are unable to protect themselves, they make use of their wealth to procure them protectors, the chief of whom, for many years, was the grand signior. They endeavour also to keep upon good terms with the Venetians, and other neighbouring states. But in the year 1783, a dispute arose between them and the king of Naples, respecting a claim of right to his appointing a commander of the Ragusan troops. It was terminated by the republic's putting itself under that king's protection. The city of Ragusa is not above two miles in circumference, but it is well built, and contains some handsome edifices. The ancient Epidaurus was situated not far from this city. The Ra-

gusans

SOIL, AIR, SEASONS, AND WATER.] Nature has laviſhed upon the inhabitants of Turkey all her bleſſings in thoſe four particulars. The ſoil, though unimproved, is luxuriant beyond deſcription. The air is ſalubrious, and friendly to the imagination, unleſs when it is corrupted from the neighbouring countries, or through the indolence and uncleanneſs of the Turkiſh manner of living. The ſeaſons are here regular and pleaſant, and have been celebrated from the remoteſt times of antiquity. The Turks are invited to frequent bathings, by the purity and wholeſomeneſs of the water all over their dominions.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe are the moſt celebrated of any in the world, and, at the ſame time, often the moſt fruitful. Mount Athos lies on a peninſula, running into the Ægean ſea; the mounts Pindus and Olympus, celebrated in Grecian fables, ſeparate Theſſaly from Epirus. Parnaſſus, in Achaia, ſo famous for being conſecrated to the muſes, is well known. Mount Hæmus is likewiſe often mentioned by the poets; but moſt of the other mountains have changed their names; witneſs the mountains Shua, Witoſka, Staras, Plamina, and many others. Even the moſt celebrated mountains above mentioned, have modern names impoſed upon them by the Turks, their new maſters, and others in their neighbourhood.

SEAS.] The Euxine, or Black ſea; the Palus Mæotis, or ſea of Aſoph; the ſea of Marmora, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia; the Archipelago; the Ionian ſea, and the Levant, are ſo many evidences that Turkey in Europe, particularly that part of it where Conſtantinople ſtands, of all other countries, had the beſt claim to be miſtreſs of the world.

STRAITS.] Thoſe of the Helleſpont and Boſphorus are joined to the ſea of Marmora, and are remakable in modern as well as in ancient hiſtory. The former, viz. the Helleſpont, or Dardanelles, is only two miles and a half in breadth, and is famous for the paſſage of Xerxes over it, when about to invade Greece, and of Alexander in his expedition againſt Aſia. The former, for the more eaſy tranſportation of his numerous forces, laid a bridge of boats over it. It is alſo celebrated by the poets in the ſtory of two lovers, Hero and Leander, of whom, the latter ſwam acroſs it to his miſtreſs: but one night was unhappily drowned. The Boſphorus is about the ſame breadth, but has not been ſo much celebrated by hiſtorians and poets.

RIVERS.] The Danube, the Save, the Neiſter, the Neiper, and the Don, are the beſt known rivers in this country; though many others have been celebrated by poets and hiſtorians.

LAKES.] Theſe are not extremely remarkable, nor are they mentioned with any great applauſe, either by the ancients or moderns. The Lago di Scutari lies in Albania. It communicates with the Lago di Plave, and the Lago di Holti. The Stymphalus, ſo famous for its harpies and ravenous birds, lies in the Morea; and Pencus, from its qualities, is thought to be the lake from which the Styx iſſues, conceived by the ancients to be the paſſage into hell.

guſians profeſs the Romiſh religion, but Greeks, Armenians, and Turks are tolerated. Almoſt all the citizens are traders, and they keep ſo watchful an eye over their freedom, that the gates of the city of Raguſa are allowed to be open only a few hours in the day. The language chiefly in uſe among the Raguſans is the Sclavonian, but the greateſt part of them ſpeak the Italian. They have many trading veſſels, and are great carriers in the Mediterranean, like the Dutch, being conſtantly at peace with the piratical ſtates of Barbary. The city of Gravoſa and Stagno, 30 miles NE. of Raguſa, are within the territories of this republic, and there are alſo five ſmall iſlands belonging to it, the principal of which is Melida.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Turkey in Europe contains a variety of all ſorts of mines; and its marbles are eſteemed the fineſt in the world.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Theſe are excellent all over the European Turkey, eſpecially when aſſiſted by the ſmalleſt degree of induſtry. Beſides pot and garden herbs of almoſt every kind, this country produces, in great abundance and perfection, oranges, lemons, citrons, pomegranates, grapes of an uncommon ſweetneſs, excellent figs, almonds, olives, and cotton. Beſides theſe, many drugs, not common in other parts of Europe, are produced here.

ANIMALS.] The Theſſalian or Turkiſh horſes are excellent both for their beauty and ſervice. The black cattle are large, eſpecially in Greece. The goats are a moſt valuable part of the animal creation to the inhabitants, for the nutrition they afford, both of milk and fleſh. The large eagles which abound in the neighbourhood of Badadagi, furniſh the beſt feathers for arrows for the Turkiſh archers, and they ſell at an uncommon price. Partridges are very plentiful in Greece; as are all other kinds of fowls and quadrupeds all over Turkey in Europe: but the Turks and Mahometans in general are not very fond of animal food.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Almoſt every ſpot of ground, every river, and every fountain in Greece, preſents the traveller with the ruins of a celebrated antiquity. On the Iſthmus of Corinth, the ruins of Neptune's temple, and the theatre where the Iſthmean games were celebrated, are ſtill viſible. Athens, which contains at preſent above 10,000 inhabitants, is a fruitful ſource of the moſt magnificent and celebrated antiquities in the world; a minute account of which would exceed the limits of this work: but it will be proper to mention ſome of the moſt conſiderable. Among the antiquities of this once ſuperb city, are the remains of the temple of Minerva, built of white marble, and encompaſſed with forty-ſix fluted columns of the Doric order, forty-two feet high, and ſeven feet and a half in circumference: the architrave is adorned with baſſo relievos, admirably executed, repreſenting the wars of the Athenians. To the ſouth eaſt of the Acropolis, a citadel which defends the town, are ſeventeen beautiful columns of the Corinthian order, thought to be the remains of the emperor Adrian's palace. They are of fine white marble, about fifty feet high, including the capitals and baſes. Juſt without the city ſtands the temple of Theſeus, ſurrounded with fluted columns of the Doric order: the portico at the weſt end is adorned with the battle of the Centaurs, in baſſo-relievo; that at the eaſt end appears to be a continuation of the ſame hiſtory: and on the outſide of the porticos, in the ſpaces between the trigliphs, are repreſented the exploits of Theſeus. On the ſouth-weſt of Athens is a beautiful ſtructure, commonly called the Lantern of Demoſthenes: this is a ſmall round edifice of white marble, the roof of which is ſupported by ſix fluted columns of the Corinthian order, nine feet and a half high; in the ſpace between the columns are pannels of marble; and the whole is covered with a cupola, carved with the reſemblance of ſcales; and on the frieze are beautifully repreſented in relievo the labours of Hercules. Here are alſo to be ſeen the temple of the Winds; the remains of the theatre of Bacchus; of the magnificent aqueduct of the emperor Adrian; and of the temples of Jupiter Olympus and Auguſtus. The remains of the temple of the oracle of Apollo are ſtill viſible at Caſtri, on the ſouth ſide of mount Parnaſſus; and the marble ſteps that deſcend to a pleaſing running water, ſuppoſed to be the renowned Caſtalian ſpring, with the niches for ſtatues in the rock, are ſtill diſcernible. The famous cave of Trophonius is ſtill a natural curioſity in Livadia, the old Bœotia.

Mount Athos, which has been already mentioned, and which is commonly called Monto Santo, lies on a peninſula which extends into the Ægean ſea, and is indeed a chain of mountains, reaching the whole length of the peninſula, ſeven Turkiſh miles in length, and three in breadth; but it is only a ſingle mountain that is properly called Athos. This is ſo lofty, that on the top, as the ancients relate, the ſun-riſing was beheld four hours ſooner than by the inhabitants of the coaſt; and, at the ſolſtice, its ſhade reached into the Agora or market-place of Myrina, a town in Lemnos, which iſland was diſtant eighty-ſeven miles eaſtward. There are twenty-two convents on mount Athos, beſides a great number of cells and grottos, with the habitations of no leſs than ſix thouſand monks and hermits; though the proper hermits, who live in grottos, are not above twenty: the other monks are anchorites, or ſuch as live in cells. Theſe Greek monks, who call themſelves the inhabitants of the holy mountains, are ſo far from being a ſet of ſlothful people, that, beſides their daily offices of religion, they cultivate the olive and vineyards, are carpenters, maſons, ſtone-cutters, cloth-workers, taylors, &c. They alſo live a very auſtere life; their uſual food, inſtead of fleſh, being vegetables, dried olives, figs, and other fruit; onions, cheeſe, and on certain days, Lent excepted, fiſh. Their faſts are many and ſevere; which, with the healthfulneſs of the air, renders longevity ſo common there, that many of them live above a hundred years. It appears from Ælian, that anciently the mountain in general, and particularly the ſummit, was accounted very healthy, and conducive to long life; whence the inhabitants are called Macrobii, or long-lived. We are farther informed by Philoſtratus, in the life of Apollonius, that numbers of philoſophers uſed to retire to this mountain, for the better contemplation of the heavens, and of nature; and after their example the monks doubtleſs built their cells.

CITIES.] Conſtantinople, the capital of this great empire, is ſituated on the European ſide of the Boſphorus. It was built upon the ruins of the ancient Byzantium, by the Roman emperor Conſtantine the Great, as a more inviting ſituation than Rome, for the ſeat of empire. It became afterwards the capital of the Greek empire; and having eſcaped the deſtructive rage of the barbarous nations, it was the greateſt as well as the moſt beautiful city in Europe, and the only one, during the Gothic ages, in which there remained any image of the ancient elegance in manners and arts. While it remained in the poſſeſſion of the Greek emperors, it was the only mart in Europe for the commodities of the Eaſt Indies. It derived great advantages from its being the rendezvous of the cruſaders; and being then in the meridian of its glory, the European writers, in the ages of the cruſades, ſpeak of it with aſtoniſhment. "O what a vaſt city is Conſtantinople (exclaims one, when he firſt beheld it), and how beautiful! How many monaſteries are there in it, and how many palaces built with wonderful art! How many manufactures are there in the city, amazing to behold! It would be aſtoniſhing to relate how it abounds with all good things, with gold, ſilver, and ſtuffs of various kinds; for every hour ſhips arrive at this port with all things neceſſary for the uſe of man." Conſtantinople is at this day one of the fineſt cities in the world by its ſituation and its port. The proſpect from it is noble. The moſt regular part is the Beſeſtin, incloſed with walls, and gates, where the merchants have their ſhops excellently ranged. In another part of the city is the Hippodrome, an oblong ſquare of 400 paces by 100, where they exerciſe on horſeback. The Meidan, or parade, is a large ſpacious ſquare, the general reſort of all ranks. On the oppoſite ſide of the port are four towns, but conſidered as a part of the ſuburbs, their diſtance being ſo ſmall, a perſon may eaſily be heard on the other ſide. They are named Pera, Galata,

Pacha,

Pacha, and Tophana. In Pera the foreign ambaſſadors and all the Franks or ſtrangers reſide, not being permitted to live in the city. Galata alſo is moſtly inhabited by Franks or Jews, and is a place of great trade. The city abounds with antiquities. The tomb of Conſtantine the Great is ſtill preſerved. The moſque of St. Sophia, once a Chriſtian church, is thought in ſome reſpects to exceed, in grandeur and architecture, St. Peter's, at Rome. The city is built in a triangular form, with the ſeraglio ſtanding on a point of one of the angles, from whence there is a proſpect of the delightful coaſt of the Leſſer Aſia, which is not to be equalled. When we ſpeak of the ſeraglio, we do not mean the apartments in which the grand ſignior's women are confined, as is commonly imagined, but the whole incloſure of the Ottoman palace, which might well ſuffice for a moderate town. The wall which ſurrounds the ſeraglio is thirty feet high, having battlements, embraſures and towers, in the ſtyle of ancient fortifications. There are in it nine gates, but only two of them magnificent; and from one of theſe the Ottoman court takes the name of the *Porte*, or the *Sublime Porte*, in all public tranſactions and records. Both the magnitude and population of Conſtantinople have been greatly exaggerated by credulous travellers. It is ſurrounded by a high and thick wall, with battlements after the Oriental manner, and towers, defended by a lined but ſhallow ditch, the works of which are double on the land ſide. The beſt authors think that it does not contain above 800,000 inhabitants, three-fourths of whom are ſaid to be Greeks and Armenians, and the reſt are Jews and Turks. Others ſuppoſe the inhabitants not to exceed 600,000. The city hath been frequently aſſailed by fires, either owing to the narrowneſs of the ſtreets and the ſtructure of the houſes, or the arts of the Janizaries. In Auguſt, 1784, a fire broke out in the quarter ſituated towards the harbour, and ſpread into other quarters, and about 10,000 houſes (moſt of which had been rebuilt ſince the fire in 1782) were conſumed.

Oppoſite to the ſeraglio, on the Aſian ſide, and about a mile and a half diſtant, acroſs the water, is Scutari, adorned with a royal moſque, and a pleaſant houſe of the grand ſignior. On the brow of an adjacent hill is a grand proſpect. In one view are the cities of Conſtantinople, Galata, and Pera, the ſmall ſeas of the Boſphorus and Propontis, with the adjacent countries on each ſhore.

As to the population, manners, religion, government, revenues, learning, military ſtrength, commerce, and manufactures of the Turks theſe ſeveral heads depending on the ſame principles all over the empire, ſhall be mentioned under Turkey in Aſia.

CRIM-TARTARY, or the CRIMEA, is the ancient Taurica Cherſoneſus, and is a peninſula, lying on the Euxine, or Black ſea, by which it is bounded on the weſt and ſouth; and on the eaſt and north-eaſt, by that of Aſoph. It is between 44 and 46 degrees of north latitude, and 34 and 37 degrees of eaſt longitude.

This peninſula was eſteemed a part of Turkey in Europe, until it was ceded to Ruſſia, in conſequence of the peace in 1784. Many cities were built on it by the Greeks, particularly thoſe of Kherſon, Theodoſia, Panticapeum, and ſome others, which carried on a great trade with the Scythians, as well as with the Greek cities on the continent.

The moſt conſiderable rivers in the Crimea are thoſe of Karaſu and Salagir, both of which take an eaſterly courſe.

Of the towns in this part of the world we have but very ſlight deſcriptions; and indeed where the country has been ſo often the ſeat of war, and the inhabitants are ſtill ſo rude, very little can be expected from their buildings. Lady Craven, now the margravine of Anſpach, who, without doubt-

had acceſs to the beſt lodgings in the country, informs us, that "a Tartar's houſe is a very ſlight building, of only one ſtory, without any chair, table, or piece of wooden furniture. Large cuſhions are ranged round the room for ſeats; and what is extremely convenient, there is more than double the ſpace of the room behind the wainſcot, which draws back in moſt places; ſo that in a place where the room appears to be exceedingly ſmall and confined, there is yet every conveniency to be met with."

Among the curioſities in this country, we may reckon the ſource of the river Karuſa, which is ſituated among rocks, in a very romantic manner, and riſes in a conſiderable ſtream. It was viſited by lady Craven in 1786. No leſs wonderful are thoſe lakes which receive the rivulets without any viſible outlet. This celebrated female traveller mentions a houſe, near Sebaſtopool, ſituated in a very romantic manner at the foot of ſome rocks, from which iſſue many clear ſprings that amply ſupply the houſes and baths with water. On the ſummit of theſe rocks, there are places which immenſe cables have certainly paſſed and been tied. The Tartars inſiſt that the ſea was once cloſe to the foot of them, and ſhips were faſtened there. Near Bacziſeria there is a mine of earth, exactly like ſoap, which is reckoned very good for the ſkin, and vaſt quantities of it are conſumed by the women at Conſtantinople. Lady Craven beſtows the greateſt encomium on the ſheep, which in this peninſula are innumerable, and afford the moſt beautiful and coſtly fleeces. The ſheep are all ſpotted; the lambkins very beautiful, and they kill the ewes to have them before birth, when their ſkins have ſmall ſpots, and are ſmooth like the fineſt and lighteſt ſattins. Coats lined with theſe ſkins are called Peliſſes; and as a great number of theſe ſmall animals muſt be killed to make the lining of one coat, this is one of the fineſt preſents the empreſs can make to an ambaſſador.

The peninſula of the Crimea has a conſiderable trade in what is called Morocco leather, of various colours, which is to be had very cheap, and like ſattin. At Bacziſeria there is a great trade of ſword-blades, knives, and hangers, many of which are not to be diſtinguiſhed from ſuch as are made at Damaſcus.

ISLANDS belonging to TURKEY in EUROPE, being part of Ancient GREECE.

I Shall mention theſe iſlands chiefly for the uſe of ſuch readers as are converſant with ancient hiſtory, of which they make ſo diſtinguiſhed a part.

NEGROPONT the ancient Eubœa, ſtretches from the ſouth-eaſt to the north-weſt, and on the eaſtern coaſt of Achaia or Livadia. It is 90 miles long and 25 broad, and contains about 1300 ſquare miles. Here the Turkiſh gallies lie. The tides on its coaſts are irregular; and the iſland itſelf is very fertile, producing corn, wine, fruit, and cattle, in ſuch abundance, that all kinds of proviſions are extremely cheap. The chief towns in the iſland are, Negropont, called by the Greeks Egripos, ſituated on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of the iſland, on the narroweſt part of the ſtrait; and Caſtel Roſſo, the ancient Caryſtus.

LEMNOS, or STALIMENE, lies on the north part of the Egean ſea or Archipelago, and is almoſt a ſquare of 25 miles in length and breadth. Though it produces corn and wine, yet its principal riches ariſe from its mineral earth, much uſed in medicine, ſometimes called *terra Lemna*, or *ſigillata*,

ſigillata, becauſe it is ſealed up by the Turks, who receeive it from it a conſiderable revenue.

TENEDOS is remarkable only for its lying oppoſite to old Troy, and its being mentioned by Virgil as the place to which the Greeks retired, and left the Trojans in a fatal ſecurity. It hath a town of the ſame name.

SCYROS is about 60 miles in circumference, and is remarkable chiefly for the remains of antiquity which it contains: about 300 Greek families inhabit it.

LESBOS, or MYTILENE, is about 60 miles long, and is famous for the number of philoſophers and poets it produced. The inhabitants were formerly noted for their prodigality.

SCIO, or CHIOS, lies about 80 miles weſt of Smyrna, and is about 100 miles in circumference. This iſland, though rocky and mountainous, produces excellent wine, but no corn. It is inhabited by 100,000 Greeks, 10,000 Turks, and about 3,000 Latins. It hath 300 churches, beſides chapels and monaſteries; and a Turkiſh garriſon of 1400 men. The inhabitants have manufactures of ſilk, velvet, gold and ſilver ſtuffs. The iſland likewiſe produces oil and ſilk, and the lentiſk-tree, or maſtic, from which the government draws its chief revenue. The women of this, and almoſt all the other Greek iſlands, have in all ages been celebrated for their beauty, and their perſons have been the moſt perfect models of ſymmetry to painters and ſtatuaries. A late learned traveller, Dr. Richard Chandler, ſays, "The beautiful Greek girls are the moſt ſtriking ornaments of Scio. Many of theſe were ſitting at the doors and windows, twiſting cotton or ſilk, or employed in ſpinning and needle work, and accoſted us with familiarity bidding us welcome as we paſſed. The ſtreets on Sundays and holidays are filled with them in groups. They wear ſhort petticoats, reaching only to their knees, with white ſilk or cotton hoſe. Their head-dreſs, which is peculiar to the iſland, is a kind of turban, the linen ſo white and thin it ſeemed ſnow. Their ſlippers are chiefly yellow, with a knot of red fringe at the heel. Some wore them faſtened with a thong. Their garments were ſilk of various colours; and their whole appearance ſo fantaſtic and lively as to afford us much entertainment. The Turks inhabit a ſeparate quarter, and their women are concealed." Among the poets and hiſtorians ſaid to be born here, the inhabitants reckon Homer, and ſhow a little ſquare houſe, which they call Homer's ſchool.

SAMOS lies oppoſite to Epheſus, on the coaſt of Leſſer Aſia, about ſeven miles from the continent. It is 30 miles long, and 15 broad. This iſland gave birth to Pythagoras, and is inhabited by Greek Chriſtians, who are well treated by the Turks, their maſters. The muſcadine Samian wine is in high requeſt; and the iſland alſo produces wool, which they ſell to the French; oil, pomegranates, and ſilk. This iſland is ſuppoſed to have been the native country of Juno; and ſome travellers think that the ruins of her temple, and of the ancient city Samos, are the fineſt remains of antiquity in the Levant.

To the ſouth of Samos lies PATMOS, about 20 miles in circumference, but ſo barren and dreary, that it may be called a rock rather than an iſland. It has, however, a convenient haven; and the few Greek monks who are upon the iſland ſhew a cave where St. John is ſuppoſed to have written the Apocalypſe.

The CYCLADES iſlands lie like a circle round Delos, the chief of them, which is ſouth of the iſlands Mycone and Tirſe, and almoſt midway between the continents of Aſia and Europe. Though Delos is not above ſix miles in circumference, it is one of the moſt celebrated of all the Grecian iſlands, as being the birth-place of Apollo and Diana, the magnificent

ruins

ruins of whoſe temples are ſtill viſible. This iſland is almoſt deſtitute of inhabitants.

PAROS lies between the Iſlands of Luxia and Milos. Like all the other Greek iſlands, it contains the moſt ſtriking and magnificent ruins of antiquity; but is chiefly renowned for the beauty and whiteneſs of its marble.

CERIGO, or CYTHEREA, lies ſouth-eaſt of the Morea, and is about 50 miles in circumference, but rocky and mountainous, and chiefly remarkable for being the favorite reſidence of Venus.

SANTORIN is one of the moſt ſouthermoſt iſlands in the Archipelago, and was formerly called Caliſta, and afterwards Thera. Though ſeemingly covered with pumice-ſtones, yet, through the induſtry of the inhabitants, who are about 10,000, it produces barley and wine, with ſome wheat. One-third of the people are of the Latin church, and ſubject to a popiſh biſhop. Near this iſland another aroſe of the ſame name, from the bottom of the ſea, in 1707. At the time of its birth there was an earthquake, attended with moſt dreadful lightnings and thunders, and boilings of the ſea for ſeveral days, ſo that when it aroſe out of the ſea, it was a mere volcano, but the burning ſoon ceaſed. It is about 200 feet above the ſea; and at the time of its firſt emerging, it was about a mile broad, and five miles in circumference, but it has ſince increaſed. Several other iſlands of the Archipelago appear to have had the like original; but the ſea in their neighbourhood is ſo deep as not to be fathomed.

The famous iſland of RHODES is ſituated in the 28th degree of eaſt longitude, and 36 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, about 20 miles ſouth-weſt of the continent of Leſſer Aſia, being about 60 miles long, and 25 broad. This iſland is healthful and pleaſant, and abounds in wine, and many of the neceſſaries of life; but the inhabitants import their corn from the neighbouring country. The chief town of the ſame name, ſtands on the ſide of a hill fronting the ſea, and is three miles in circumference, interſperſed with gardens, minarets, churches, and towers.

The harbour is the grand ſignior's principal arſenal for ſhipping, and the place is eſteemed among the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes belonging to the Turks. The coloſſus of braſs, which anciently ſtood at the mouth of the harbour, and was 50 fathoms wide, was deſervedly accounted one of the wonders of the world: one foot being placed on each ſide of the harbour, ſhips paſſed between its legs; and it held in one hand a light-houſe for the direction of mariners. The face of the coloſſus repreſented the ſun, to whom this image was dedicated; and its height was about 135 feet. The inhabitants of this iſland were formerly maſters of the ſea; and the Rhodian law was the directory of the Romans in maritime affairs. The knights of St. John of Jeruſalem, after loſing Paleſtine, took this iſland from the Turks in 1308, but loſt it to them in 1522, after a brave defence, and afterwards retired to Malta.

CANDIA, the ancient Crete, is ſtill renowned for its hundred cities, for its being the birth place of Jupiter, the ſeat of legiſlature to all Greece, and many other hiſtorical and political diſtinctions. It lies between 35 and 36 degrees of north latitude, being 200 miles long, and 60 broad, almoſt equally diſtant from Europe, Aſia, and Africa, and contains 3220 ſquare miles. The famous Mount Ida ſtands in the middle of the iſland, and is no better than a barren rock; and Lethe, the river of oblivion, is a torpid ſtream. Some of the vallies of this iſland produce wine, fruits, and corn; all of them are remarkably excellent in their kind. The ſiege of Candia, the capital of the iſland, in modern times, was far more wonder-

ful

ASIA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

EUROPEAN RUSSIAN GOVERNMENT
SIBERIAN GOVERNMENT
TUNGUSI
YAKUTSK
OSTIACHS
TOBOLSK
ORENBURG
GOVERNMT. OF
TUNGUSIAN TARTARS
EASTERN
MANSHURIA
TARTARY
MONGOUES called KALKAS
SOONGARIAN
KITAYANS
WESTERN
TURKOMANIA
CASHGUR
TARTARY
The Great Desert of Cobi
KALMUCS
THIBET
HINDOOSTAN
CHINA
KOREA
NIPHON
ISLES of JAPAN
EAST
OCEAN
ARABIA
PERSIA
Persian Gulf
Red Sea
Black Sea
Caspian Sea
Sea of Aral
Lake Baikal
Gulf of Corea
Gulf of Tonquin
Gulf of Siam
Bay of Bengal
Bay of Nanking
Sea of Kamtschatka
Sea of Ochotsk
Arctic Circle
Tropic of Cancer
Equinoctial Line
INDIAN OCEAN
EUROPE
AFRICA
CHINA SEA
PHILIPPINE ISLES
SUMATRA
JAVA
BORNEO
CELEBES
NEW GUINEA
Nova Zembla
C. Taimura
Oleinek
Lena R.
Yakutsk
Ochotsk
Kamtschatka
Behring's I.
Copper I.
Tobolsk
Tomsk
Jeniseisk
Irkutsk
Baikal
Selenginsk
Nerczinsk
Saghalieu Ula
Amur R.
Moscow
Petersburg
Constantinople
Astrachan
Orenburg
Aral L.
Caspian Sea
Black Sea
Georgia
Tiflis
Erzerum
Smyrna
Aleppo
Damascus
Jerusalem
Cairo
Mecca
Medina
Muscat
Ormus
Bassora
Bagdad
Ispahan
Shiraz
Herat
Cabul
Candahar
Delhi
Calcutta
Bombay
Surat
Goa
Madras
Pondicherry
Trincomaly
Columbo
Candy
Ceylon
Maldive Islands
Laccadive Is.
Socotora
Guardafui
Ausaguel
Magadocia
Mocha
Aden
Muscat
Ormus
Pekin
Whang Hay
Nanking
Canton
Macao
Formosa I.
Liqueo Is.
Manilla
Luconia or Luzon
Mindanao
Celebes
Borneo
Java
Sumatra
Malacca
Pulo Minton
Priaman
Batavia
Sunda Is.
Timor
Timorland
Amirante Is.
Diego Rayes
Diego Garcia
Cornish I.
Seven Brothers
Mahe Is.
Pemba I.
Mozambique
Twelve Is.
Saya de Malha
Roquepiz
Polyereinu I.
Keelings Is.
Christmas I.
Andaman I.
Nicobar Is.
Straits of Malacca
Straits of Sunda
Gulf of Siam
Gulf of Tonquin
Gulf of Corea
Bay of Nanking
Sea of Kamtschatka
Sea of Ochotsk
Lake Baikal
Aral L.
Caspian Sea
Red Sea
Persian Gulf
Black Sea
Arctic Circle
Tropic of Cancer
Equinoctial Line
40 Longitude East 50 from London 60 70 80 90 100 110 120 130 140

ASIA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.

EUROPE

AMERICA

AFRICA

ARABIA

INDIA

PERSIA

TURKOMANIA

TARTARY

JAPAN

EASTERN OCEAN

Tropic of Cancer

Equator

Laccadive Islands

Maldivia Islands

Kurile Isles

Ladrone Isles

Isles of Japan

Caroline Islands

New Guinea

New Britain

New Ireland

Admiralty I.

Schoutens I.

Black Sea

Caspian Sea

Red Sea

Persian Gulf

Arabian Sea

Mediterranean Sea

Bay of Bengal

Constantinople

Danube R.

Azof

Astrachan

Kaplow

Georgia

Tiflis

Erzeroum

Euphrates R.

Sivas

Smyrna

Natolia

Cyprus

Aleppo

Tripoli

Damascus

Jerusalem

Gaza

Cairo

Suez

Tebus

Bassora

Horeb

Tima

Reid el Kailif

Kaibar

Anizeb

Medina

Mecca

Judda

Tebala

Nagcran

Gioras

Sooda

Sanaa

Damar

Tocz

Mocha

Aden

Attaba

Socotora

C. Guardafui

Ausaguel

C. das Baxas

Magadocia

Moka

Pemba I.

Amirante Is.

Mahe Is.

7 Brothers

Diego

Twelve Is.

Saya de Malha

Cornish Is.

Six Is.

Diego Garcia

Maldivia Islands

Pelew Islands

Yap

Aroo

C. Walsingham

Timorland

Louisiade

C. Deliverance

Schouten I.

Admiralty I.

New Ireland

New Britain

Egg I.

Lamarek

Olimarao

Hogoleu

Urac

Agrigan

Analagam

Saypan

Tinian

Guaham

Palla

Schelig

Ladrone

Isles

Caroline Islands

Kamtschatka

Beering's I.

Copper I.

Behring's Sea

Aleutian Isles

Kurile Isles

Jesso

Nadeegdha

The 3 Sisters

Teloonoy

Matoosmace

Nambi

Yedo

Lopatka C.

Pourintchin

Awatska or St. Peter & Paul

Ostrog

Bristol B.

Ounalaska

Agattoo

Oonalaska

Kikhtak

Saratow

Dmidrowsk

Ural

Astrachan

Syzran

Samara

Reshi

Hamedan

Korrumabad

Bagdad

Ispahan

Babein

Shuster

Shirauz

Jarom

Congo

Ormus

Tize

Kishm

Gadel

Basti

Kal

Bost

Kain

Damegan

Astrabad

Herat

Candahar

Persian Gulf

Caspian Sea

Black Sea

Red Sea

Arabian Sea

Bay of Bengal

Mecca

Medina

Judda

Mocha

Aden

Mosca

Oman

Muscat

Ras al Had

Jamama

Abia

Kaibar

Anizeb

Reid el Kailif

Perian Gulf

Bassora

Tebus

Suez

Cairo

Gaza

Jerusalem

Damascus

Hella

Aleppo

Tripoli

Cyprus

Orfa

Diarbeck

Erzeroum

Sivas

Smyrna

Constantinople

Danube R.

Kaplow

Azof

Astrachan

Georgia

Tiflis

Baku

Yan

Moraga

Ispahan

Babein

Shuster

Shirauz

Jarom

Congo

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Yedo

Gerkes I.

East C.

C. of Anadir

St. Thadeus Nos

Anadirskoi Sea

Kamtschatka

Beering's I.

Copper I.

Awatska or St. Peter & Paul

Ostrog

Bristol B.

Ounalaska

Agattoo

Oonalaska

Kikhtak

Kurile Isles

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Nadeegdha

The 3 Sisters

Teloonoy

Matoosmace

Nambi

Yedo

Lopatka C.

Pourintchin

Saratow

Dmidrowsk

Ural

Astrachan

Syzran

Samara

Reshi

Hamedan

Korrumabad

Bagdad

Ispahan

Babein

Shuster

Shirauz

Jarom

Congo

Ormus

Tize

Kishm

Gadel

Basti

Kal

Bost

Kain

Damegan

Astrabad

Herat

Candahar

Persian Gulf

Caspian Sea

Black Sea

Red Sea

Arabian Sea

Bay of Bengal

Mecca

Medina

Judda

Mocha

Aden

Mosca

Oman

Muscat

Ras al Had

Jamama

Abia

Kaibar

Anizeb

Reid el Kailif

Perian Gulf

Bassora

Tebus

Suez

Cairo

Gaza

Jerusalem

Damascus

Hella

Aleppo

Tripoli

Cyprus

Orfa

Diarbeck

Erzeroum

Sivas

Smyrna

Constantinople

Danube R.

Kaplow

Azof

Astrachan

Georgia

Tiflis

Baku

Yan

Moraga

Tzgri R.

Euphrates R.

Natolia

Mediterranean Sea

Black Sea

Caspian Sea

Red Sea

Persian Gulf

Arabian Sea

Bay of Bengal

Europe

Asia

Africa

Arabia

India

Persia

Turkomania

Tartary

Japan

Eastern Ocean

Pacific Ocean

Indian Ocean

Tropic of Cancer

Equator

Laccadive Islands

Maldivia Islands

Kurile Isles

Ladrone Isles

Isles of Japan

Caroline Islands

New Guinea

New Britain

New Ireland

Admiralty I.

Schoutens I.

Egg I.

Lamarek

Olimarao

Hogoleu

Urac

Agrigan

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Saypan

Tinian

Guaham

Palla

Schelig

Ladrone Isles

Caroline Islands

Yap

Aroo

C. Walsingham

Timorland

Louisiade

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Schouten I.

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Ladrone Isles

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Yap

Aroo

C. Walsingham

Timorland

Louisiade

C. Deliverance

Pelew Islands

Mahe Is.

7 Brothers

Diego

Twelve Is.

Saya de Malha

Cornish Is.

Six Is.

Diego Garcia

Maldivia Islands

Pelew Islands

Moka

Pemba I.

Amirante Is.

Mahe Is.

7 Brothers

Diego

Twelve Is.

Saya de Malha

Cornish Is.

Six Is.

Diego Garcia

Maldivia Islands

Pelew Islands

Socotora

C. Guardafui

Ausaguel

C. das Baxas

Magadocia

Moka

Pemba I.

Amirante Is.

Mahe Is.

7 Brothers

Diego

Twelve Is.

Saya de Malha

Cornish Is.

Six Is.

Diego Garcia

Maldivia Islands

Pelew Islands

40 Longitude East 50 from London 60

140 150

50 40 30 20 10 0 10

ful and bloody than that of Troy. The Turks inveſted it in the beginning of the year 1645, and its Venetian garriſon, after bravely defending itſelf againſt 56 ſtorms, till the latter end of September 1669, made, at laſt, an honourable capitulation. The ſiege coſt the Turks 180,000 men, and the Venetians 80,000.

CYPRUS lies in the Levant ſea, about 30 miles diſtant from the coaſts of Syria and Paleſtine. It is 150 miles long, and 70 broad, and lies at almoſt an equal diſtance from Europe and Africa. It was formerly famous for the worſhip of Venus, the Cyprian goddeſs; and, during the time of the Cruſades, was a rich flouriſhing kingdom, inhabited by Chriſtians. Its wine, eſpecially that which grows at the bottom of the celebrated Mount Olympus, is the moſt palatable, and the richeſt of all that grows in the Greek iſlands. Nicoſia is the capital, in the midſt of the country, and the ſee of a Greek archbiſhop; indeed, moſt part of the inhabitants of the iſland are Greeks. Famaguſta, its ancient capital, has a good harbour; and the natural produce of the iſland is ſo rich, that many European nations find their account in keeping conſuls reſiding upon it; but the oppreſſions of the Turks have depopulated and impoveriſhed it to a ſurpriſing degree, ſo that the revenue they get from it does not exceed 1250l. a year. The iſland produces great quantities of grapes, from which excellent wine is made; and alſo cotton of a very fine quality is here cultivated, and oil, ſilk, and turpentine. Its female inhabitants do not degenerate from their anceſtors as devotees to Venus; and Paphos, that ancient ſeat of pleaſure and corruption, is one of the diviſions of the iſland. Richard I, king of England, ſubdued Cyprus, on account of its king's treachery; and its royal title was transferred to Guy Luſignan, king of Jeruſalem, from whence it paſſed to the Venetians, who ſtill hold that empty honour.

The iſlands in the Ionian ſea, are, SAPIENZA, STIVALI, ZANTE, CEPHALONIA, SANTAMAURA, CORFU, FANNU, and others of ſmaller note, particularly Iſola del Compare, which would not deſerve mention, had it not been the ancient Ithaca, the birth-place and kingdom of Ulyſſes. Theſe iſlands, in general, are fruitful, and belong to the Venetians.

ZANTE has a populous capital of the ſame name, and is a place of conſiderable trade, eſpecially in currants, grapes, and wine. The citadel is erected on the top of a large hill, ſtrong by nature, but now little better than a heap of ruins. Here is a garriſon of 500 men, but their chief dependence is on their fleet, and the iſland of Corfu. The inhabitants of Zante are about 30,000, moſtly Greeks, and friendly to ſtrangers. Corfu, which is the capital of that iſland, and the reſidence of the governor-general over all the other iſlands, is a place of great ſtrength, and its circumference about four miles. The Venetians are ſaid to concern themſelves very little about the welfare or government of theſe iſlands, ſo that the inhabitants, who are generally Greek, bear a very indifferent character. Their number at Corfu is eſtimated at 50,000, and their manners more ſevere than at Zante.

ASIA.

AS Aſia exceeds Europe and Africa in the extent of its territories, it is alſo ſuperior to them in the ſerenity of its air, the fertility of its ſoil, the deliciouſneſs of its fruits, the fragrancy and balſamic qualities of its plants, ſpices, and gums; the ſalubrity of its drugs; the quantity, variety,

variety, beauty, and value of its gems; the richneſs of its metals, and the fineneſs of its ſilks, and cottons. It was in Aſia, according to the ſacred records, that the all-wiſe Creator planted the garden of Eden, in which he formed the firſt man and firſt woman, from whom the race of mankind was to ſpring. Aſia, became again the nurſery of the world after the deluge, whence the deſcendants of Noah diſperſed their various colonies into all the other parts of the globe. It was in Aſia, that God placed his once favourate people, the Hebrews, whom he enlightened by revelations delivered by the prophets, and to whom he gave the Oracles of Truth. It was here that the great and merciful work of our redemption was accompliſhed by his divine Son; and it was from hence that the light of his glorious goſpel was carried, with amazing rapidity, into all the known nations by his diſciples and followers. Here the firſt Chriſtian churches were founded, and the Chriſtian faith miraculouſly propagated, and cheriſhed, even with the blood of innumerable martyrs. It was in Aſia that the firſt edifices were reared, and the firſt empires founded, while the other parts of the globe were inhabited only by wild animals. On all theſe accounts, this quarter claims a ſuperiority over the reſt; but it muſt be owned, that a great change hath happened in that part of it called Turkey, which hath loſt much of its ancient ſplendor; and from the moſt populous and beſt cultivated ſpot in Aſia, is become a wild and uncultivated deſert. The other parts of Aſia continue much in their former condition, the ſoil being as remarkable for its fertility, as moſt of the inhabitants for their indolence, effeminacy, and luxury. This effeminacy is chiefly owing to the warmth of the climate, though in ſome meaſure heightened by cuſtom and education: and the ſymptoms of it are more or leſs viſible, as the ſeveral nations are ſeated nearer or farther from the north. Hence the Tartars, who live near the ſame latitudes with us, are as brave, hardy, ſtrong, and vigorous, as any European nation. What is wanting in the robuſt frame of their bodies, among the Chineſe, Mogul-Indians, and all the inhabitants of the moſt ſouthern regions, is in a great meaſure made up to them by the vivacity of their minds, and ingenuity in various kinds of workmanſhip, which our moſt ſkilful mechanics have in vain endeavoured to imitate.

This vaſt extent of territory was ſucceſſively governed, in paſt times, by the Aſſyrians, the Medes, the Perſians, and the Greeks; but the immenſe regions of India and China were little known to Alexander, or the conquerors of the ancient world. Upon the decline of thoſe empires, great part of Aſia ſubmitted to the Roman arms; and afterwards, in the middle ages, the ſucceſſors of Mahomet, or, as they were uſually called, Saracens, founded in Aſia, in Africa, and in Europe, a more extenſive empire than that of Cyrus, Alexander, or even the Roman, when in its height of power. The Saracen greatneſs ended with the death of Tamerlane; and the Turks, conquerors on every ſide, took poſſeſſion of the middle regions of Aſia, which they ſtill enjoy. Beſides the countries poſſeſſed by the Turks and Ruſſians, Aſia contains, at preſent, three large empires, the Chineſe, the Mogul, and the Perſian, upon which the leſſer kingdoms and ſovereignties of Aſia, generally depend. The prevailing form of government, in this diviſion of the globe, is abſolute monarchy. If any of them can be ſaid to enjoy ſome ſhare of liberty, it is the wandering tribes, as the Tartars and Arabs. Many of the Aſiatic nations, when the Dutch firſt came among them, could not conceive how it was poſſible for any people to live under any other form of Government than that of a deſpotic monarchy. Turkey, Arabia, Perſia, part of Tartary, and part of India, profeſs Mahometaniſm. The Perſian and Indian Mahometans

are

are of the ſect of Hali, and the others of that of Omar; but both own Mahomet for their lawgiver, and the Koran for their rule of faith and life. In the other parts of Tartary, India, China, Japan, and the Aſiatic iſlands, they are generally heathens and idolaters. Jews are to be found every where in Aſia. Chriſtianity, though planted here with wonderful rapidity by the apoſtles and primitive fathers, ſuffered an almoſt total eclipſe by the conqueſts of the Saracens, and afterwards of the Turks; incredible indeed have been the hazard, perils, and ſufferings, of popiſh miſſionaries, to propagate their doctrines in the moſt diſtant regions, and among the groſſeſt idolaters; but their labours have hitherto failed of ſucceſs, owing in a great meaſure to their own avarice, and the avarice and profligacy of the Europeans, who reſort thither in ſearch of wealth and dominion.

The principal languages ſpoken in Aſia are, the modern Greek, the Turkiſh, the Ruſſian, the Tartarian, the Perſian, the Arabic, the Malayan, the Chineſe, and the Japaneſe. The European languages are alſo ſpoken upon the coaſts of India and China.

The continent of Aſia is ſituated between 25 and 180 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between the equator and 80 degrees of north latitude. It is about 4740 miles in length, from the Dardanelles on the weſt, to the eaſtern ſhore of Tartary; and about 4380 miles in breadth, from the moſt ſouthern part of Malacca, to the moſt northern cape of Nova Zembla. It is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; on the weſt it is ſeparated from Africa by the Red Sea, and from Europe by the Levant or Mediterranean, the Archipelago, the Helleſpont, the ſea of Marmora, the Boſphorus, the Black Sea, the river Don, and a line drawn from it to the river Tobol, and from thence to the river Oby, which falls into the Frozen Ocean. On the eaſt, it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, which ſeparates it from America; and on the ſouth, by the Indian Ocean; ſo that it is almoſt ſurrounded by the ſea. The principal regions which divide this country are as follows:

	Nations.	Lengrh.	Breadth.	Square Miles	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fm. Lond.	Diff. of time from London.	Rons.
Tartary.	Ruſſian	The bounds of theſe parts are unlimited, each power puſhing on his conqueſts as far as he can		3,050,000	Tobolſk	2160 N.E.	4 10 bef.	Ch. & Pag
	Chineſe			644,000	Chynian	4480 N.E.	8 4 bef.	Pagans
	Mogulean			185,350	Tibet	3780 E.	5 40 bef.	Pagans
	Independ.			600,060	Samer. Laſſa.	2800 E. 4310	4 36 bef.	Pagans
	China	1440	1000	1,105,000	Pekin	4320 S.E.	7 24 bef.	Pagans
	Moguls	2000	1500	1,116,000	Delhi	3720 S.E.	5 16 bef.	Mah. & P.
	Ind. beyond the Ganges	2000	1000	741,500	Siam Pegu	5040 S.E.	6 44 bef.	Pag. & M.
	Perſia	1300	1100	800,000	Iſpahan	2460 S.E.	3 20 bef.	Mahom.
Turkey in Aſia.	Part of Arab.	1300	1200	700,000	Mecca	2640 S.E.	2 52 bef	Mahom.
	Syria	270	160	29 000	Aleppo	1860 S E.	2 30 bef.	Ch. & Ma.
	Holy Land	210	90	7,600	Jeruſalem	1920 S E.	2 24 bef.	Ch. & Ma.
	Natolia	750	390	195,000	Burſa or Smyrna	1440 S.E.	1 48 bef.	Mahom.
	Diarbeck or Meſopotam	240	210	27.000	Diarbeck	2060 S.E.	2 56 bef.	Mahometans with ſome few Chriſtians.
	Irac or Chaldea	420	240	50,400	Bagdad	2240 S.E.	3 04 bef.	
	Turcomania or Armenia	360	300	55,000	Erzerum	1860 S.E.	2 44 bef.	
	Georgia *	240	180	25,600	Teflis	1920 E.	3 10 bef.	
	Curdiſtan or Aſſyria	210	205	23,900	Mouſul	2220 E.	3 — bef.	Mahom.

All the iſlands of Aſia (except Cyprus, already deſcribed in the Levant belonging to the Turks) lie in the Pacific or Eaſtern Ocean, and the Indian Seas; of which the principal, where the Europeans trade or have ſettlements, are,

Iſlands.	Towns.	Sq. Miles	Trade with or belong to
The Japaneſe iſles	Jeddo, Meaco	138,000	Dutch
The Ladrones	Guam ——		Spain
Formoſa	Tai-ouan-fou —	17,000	China
Anian	Kiontcheow —	11,900	China
The Philippines	Manilla ——	133,700	Spain
The Molucca, or Clove iſles	Victoria Fort, Ternate		Dutch
The Banda, or Nutmeg iſles	Lantor ——		Dutch
Amboyna, Celebes, Gilolo, &c. ſurrounding the Molucca & Banda iſles	Amboyna ——	400	Dutch
	Macaſſer ——	68,400	Dutch
	Gilolo ——	10,400	Dutch
The Sunda iſles: Borneo	Borneo, Caytongee	228,000	All Nations
Sumatra	Achen, Bencoolen	129,000	Engliſh and Dutch
Java, &c.	Batavia, Bantam	38,250	Dutch
The Andaman & Nicobar iſles	Andaman, Nicobar		All Nations
Ceylon —— ——	Candy ——	27,730	Dutch
The Maldives ——	Caridon ——		All Nations
Bombay —— ——	Bombay ——		Engliſh
The Kurile iſles, and thoſe in the ſea of Kamtſchatka, lately diſcovered by the Ruſſians —— —— ——			Ruſſia

* Georgia hath lately put itſelf under the protection of Ruſſia.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1000 Breadth 800	between	27 and 46 east longitude. 28 and 45 north latitude.	520,820.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the Black Sea and Circassia on the North; by Persia on the East; by Arabia and the Levant Sea, on the South; and by the Archipelago, the Hellespont, and Propontis, which separate it from Europe, on the West.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
The eastern provinces are	1. Eyraca Arabic, or Chaldea	Bassora and Bagdad.
	2. Diarbec, or Mesopotamia	Diarbec, Orfa, &c.
	3. Curdistan, or Assyria	Mousul and Betlis.
	4. Turcomania, or Armenia	Erzerum and Van.
	5. Georgia, including Mengrelia and Imaretta, and part of Circassia.	Teflis, Armarchia, & Gonie
Natolia, or the Lesser Asia, on the west.	1. Natolia Proper	Burfa, Nici, Smyrna, and Ephesus.
	2. Amasia — —	Amasia, Trapezond, and Sinope.
	3. Aladulia — — —	Ajazzo and Marat.
	4. Caramania — —	Satalia and Terasso.
East of the Levant Sea.	Syria, with Palestine, or the Holy Land.	Aleppo, Antioch, Damascus, Tyre, Sidon, Tripoli, Scanderoon, Jerusalem.

MOUNTAINS.] These are famous in sacred as well as profane writings. The most remarkable are, Olympus, Taurus and Anti-taurus; Caucasus and Ararat; Lebanon and Hermon.

RIVERS.] The same may be observed of the rivers, which are the Euphrates, Tigris, Orontis, Meander, Sarabat, Kara, and Jordan.

AIR AND CLIMATE] Though both are delightful in the utmost degree, and naturally salubrious to the human constitution, yet such is the equality with which the author of nature has dispensed his benefits, that Turkey, both in Europe and Asia, is often visited by the plague; a frightful scourge to mankind wherever it takes place, but here doubly destructive, from the native indolence of the Turks, and the superstitious belief in a predestination, which prevents them from using the proper precautions to defend themselves against this calamity.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] As this country contains the most fertile provinces of Asia, I need scarcely inform the reader that it produces all the luxuries of life in the utmost abundance, notwithstanding the indolence of its owners. Raw silk, corn, wine, oil, honey, fruit of every species, coffee, myrrh, frankincense, and odoriferous plants and drugs, are natives here almost without culture, which is practised chiefly by Greek and Armenian Christians. The olives, citrons, lemons, oranges, figs, and dates, produced in these provinces are highly delicious, and in such plenty, that they cost the inhabitants a mere trifle, and it is said in some places nothing. Their asparagus is often as large as a man's leg, and their grapes far exceed

those

thoſe of other countries in largeneſs. In ſhort, nature has brought all her productions here to the higheſt perfection.

ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.] The ſame may be ſaid of their animals. The breed of the Turkiſh and Arabian horſes, the latter eſpecially, are valuable beyond any in the world, and have conſiderably improved that of the Engliſh. We know of no quadrupeds that are peculiar to theſe countries, but they contain all that are neceſſary for the uſe of mankind. Camels are here in much requeſt, from their ſtrength, their agility, and, above all, their moderation in eating and drinking, which is greater than that of any other known animal. Their manufacture, known by the name of camlets, was originally made by a mixture of camel's hair and ſilk, though it is now often made with wool and ſilk. Their kids and ſheep are exquiſite eating, and are ſaid to ſurpaſs, in flavour and taſte, thoſe of Europe: but their butchers' meat in general, beef particularly, is not ſo fine.

As to birds, they have wild fowl in vaſt perfection: their oſtriches are well known by their tallneſs, ſwiftneſs in running, and ſtupidity. The Roman epicures prized no fiſh, except lampreys, mullets, and oyſters, but thoſe that were found in Aſia.

METALS AND MINERALS.] This country contains all the metals that are to be found in the richeſt kingdoms and provinces in Europe; and its medicinal ſprings and baths exceed thoſe of any in the known world.

OF THE TURKS IN EUROPE AND ASIA.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] THE population of this great country is by no means equal either to its extent or fertility, nor have the beſt geographers been able to aſcertain it, becauſe of the uncertainty of its limits. It certainly is not ſo great as it was before the Chriſtian æra, or even under the Roman emperors; owing to various cauſes, and, above all, to the tyranny under which the natives live, and their polygamy, which is undoubtedly an enemy to population, as may be evinced from many reaſons; and particularly, becauſe the Greeks and Armenians, among whom it is not practiſed, are incomparably more prolific than the Turks, notwithſtanding the rigid ſubjection in which they are kept by the latter. The plague is another cauſe of depopulation. The Turkiſh emperor, however, has more ſubjects than any two European princes.

As to the inhabitants, they are generally well made and robuſt men: when young, their complexions are fair, and their faces handſome; their hair and eyes are black or dark brown. The women, when young, are commonly handſome, but they generally look old at thirty. In their demeanour, the Turks are rather hypocondriac, grave, ſedate, and paſſive; but when agitated by paſſion, furious, raging, ungovernable; big with diſſimulation, jealous, ſuſpicious, and vindictive beyond conception: in matters of religion, tenacious, ſuperſtitious, and moroſe. Though the generality ſeem hardly capable of much benevolence, or even humanity, with regard to Jews, Chriſtians, or any who differ from them in religious matters, yet they are far from being devoid of ſocial affections for thoſe of their own religion. But intereſt is their ſupreme good; and when that comes in competition, all ties of religion, conſanguinity, or friendſhip, are with the generality ſpeedily diſſolved. The morals of the Aſiatic Turks are far preferable to thoſe of the European. They are hoſpitable to ſtrangers; and the vices of avarice and inhumanity reign chiefly among their

their great men. They are likewiſe ſaid to be charitable to one another, and punctual in their dealings. Their charity and public ſpirit is moſt conſpicuous in their building caravanſeras, or places of entertainment, on roads that are deſtitute of accommodations, for the refreſhment of poor pilgrims or travellers. With the ſame laudable view they ſearch out the beſt ſprings, and dig wells, which in thoſe countries are a luxury to weary travellers. The Turks ſit croſs-legged upon mats, not only at their meals but in company. Their ideas, except what they acquire from opium, are ſimple and confined, ſeldom reaching without the walls of their own houſes; where they ſit converſing with their women, drinking coffee, ſmoking tobacco, or chewing opium. They have little curioſity to be informed of the ſtate of their own, or any other country. If a viſier, bathaw, or other officer, is turned out, or ſtrangled, they ſay no more on the occaſion, than that there will be a new viſier or governor, ſeldom enquiring into the reaſon of the diſgrace of the former miniſter. They are perfect ſtrangers to wit and agreeable converſation. They have few printed books, and ſeldom read any other than the Koran, and the comments upon it. Nothing is negociated in Turkey without preſents; and here juſtice may commonly be bought and ſold.

The Turks dine about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, and they ſup at five in the winter and ſix in the ſummer, and this is their principal meal. Among the great people, their diſhes are ſerved up one by one; but they have neither knife nor fork, and they are not permitted by their religion to uſe gold or ſilver ſpoons. Their victuals are always high ſeaſoned. Rice is the common food of the lower ſort, and ſometimes it is boiled up with gravy; but their chief diſh is pilau, which is mutton and fowl boiled to rags; and the rice being boiled quite dry, the ſoup is high-ſeaſoned, and poured upon it. They drink water, ſherbet, and coffee; and the only debauch they know is in opium, which gives them ſenſations reſembling thoſe of intoxication. Gueſts of high rank ſometimes have their beards perfumed by a female ſlave of the family. They are temperate and ſober from a principle of their religion, which forbids them the uſe of wine; though in private many of them indulge themſelves in the uſe of ſtrong liquors. Their common ſalutation is by an inclination of the head, and laying their right hand on their breaſt. They ſleep in linen waiſtcoats and drawers, upon mattreſſes, and cover themſelves with a quilt. Few or none of the conſiderable inhabitants of this vaſt empire have any notion of walking or riding either for health or diverſion. The moſt religious among them find, however, ſufficient exerciſe when they conform themſelves to the frequent ablutions, prayers, and rites preſcribed them by Mahomet.

Their active diverſions conſiſt in ſhooting at a mark, or tilting it with darts, at which they are very expert. Some of their great men are fond of hunting, and take the field with numerous equipages, which are joined by their inferiors; but this is often done for political purpoſes, that they may know the ſtrength of their dependents. Within doors, the cheſs or draught board are their uſual amuſements: and if they play at chance games they never bet money, that being prohibited by the Koran.

DRESS.] The men ſhave their heads, leaving a lock on the crown, and wear their beards long. They cover their heads with a turban, and never put it off but when they ſleep. Their ſhirts are without collar or wriſtband, and over them they throw a long veſt, which they tie with a ſaſh, and over the veſt they wear a looſe gown ſomewhat ſhorter. Their breeches, or drawers, are of a piece with their ſtockings; and inſtead of ſhoes they wear ſlippers, which they put off when they enter a temple or houſe.

houſe. They ſuffer no Chriſtians, or other people, to wear white turbans. The dreſs of the women differs little from that of the men, only they wear ſtiffened caps upon their heads with horns ſomething like a mitre, and wear their hair down. When they appear abroad, they are ſo muffled up as not to be known by their neareſt relation. Such of the women as are virtuous make no uſe of paint to heighten their beauty, or to diſguiſe their complexion; but they often tinge their hands and feet with *henna*, which gives them a deep yellow. The men make uſe of the ſame expedient to colour their beards.

MARRIAGES.] Marriages in this country are chiefly negociated by the ladies. When the terms are agreed upon, the bridegroom pays down a ſum of money, a licence is taken out from the cadi, or proper magiſtrate, and the parties are married. The bargain is celebrated, as in other nations, with mirth and jollity; and the money is generally employed in furniſhing the houſe of the young couple. They are not allowed by their law more than four wives, but they may have as many concubines as they can maintain. Accordingly, beſides their wives, the wealthy Turks keep a kind of ſeragiio of women; but all theſe indulgences are ſometimes inſufficient to gratify their unnatural deſires.

FUNERALS.] The burials of the Turks are decent. The corpſe is attended by the relations, chanting paſſages from the Koran; and after being depoſited in a moſque (for ſo they call their temples) they are buried in a field by the iman or prieſt, who pronounces a funeral ſermon at the time of the interment. The male relations expreſs their ſorrow by alms and prayers; the women, by decking the tomb on certain days with flowers and green leaves; and in mourning for a huſband they wear a particular head-dreſs, and leave off all finery for twelve months.

RELIGION.] The eſtabliſhed religion is the Mahometan, ſo called from Mahomet, the author of it, ſome account of whom the reader will find in the following hiſtory of Arabia, the native country of that impoſtor. The Turks profeſs to be of the ſect of Omar; but theſe are ſplit into as many ſectaries as their neighbours the Chriſtians. There is no ordination among their clergy; any perſon may be a prieſt that pleaſes to take the habit, and perform the functions of his order, and may lay down his office when he pleaſes. Their chief prieſt, or mufti, ſeems to have great power in the ſtate.

ECCLESIASTICAL INSTITUTIONS OF CHRISTIANS.] The Turkiſh government having formed theſe into part of its finances, they are tolerated where they are moſt profitable; but the hardſhips impoſed upon the Greek church are ſuch, as muſt always diſpoſe that people to favour any revolution of government. Conſtantinople, Jeruſalem, Alexandria, and Antioch, are patriarchates; and their heads are indulged, according as they pay for their privilege, with a civil as well as an eccleſiaſtical authority over their votaries. The ſame may be ſaid of the Neſtorian and Armenian patriarchs; and every great city that can pay for the privilege, has its archbiſhop or biſhop. All male Chriſtians pay alſo a capitation tax from ſeventeen years old to ſixty, according to their ſtations.

LANGUAGE.] The radical languages of this empire are the Sclavonian, which ſeems to have been the mother-tongue of the ancient Turks; the Greek modernized, but ſtill bearing a relation to the old language; the Arabic and the Syriac, a dialect of which is ſtill ſpoken. A ſpecimen of the modern Greek follows in their paternoſter:

Pater homas, opios iſo eis tos ouranous: hagiaſthito to onoma ſou: na erti ee baſilia ſou: to thelema ſou na genetex itzon eu to ge, os is ton ouranon: to

ptſomi

pasi i hemas doze hemas semoren: kæ si choraſe hemos ta crimat, hemon itzone, kæ hemas ſichoraſomen ekinous opou: mas adikoukæ meu ternes h.mais is to piraſmo, alla ſoſo.i hemas apo to kaxo. Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Turks till of late profeſſed a ſovereign contempt for our learning. Greece, which was the native country of genius, arts, and ſciences, produces at preſent, beſides Turks, numerous bands of Chriſtian biſhops, prieſts, and monks, who in general are as ignorant as the Turks themſelves, and are divided into various abſurd ſects of what they call Chriſtianity. The education of the Turks ſeldom extends farther than reading the Turkiſh language, and the Koran, and writing a common letter. Some of them underſtand aſtronomy, ſo far as to calculate the time of an eclipſe; but the number of theſe being very ſmall, they are looked upon as extraordinary perſons.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] Theſe are ſo various, that they have furniſhed matter for many voluminous publications, and others are appearing every day. Theſe countries contained all that was rich and magnificent, in architecture and ſculpture; and neither the barbarity of the Turks, nor the depredations they have ſuffered from the Europeans, ſeem to have diminiſhed their number. They are more or leſs perfect, according to the air, ſoil, or climate, in which they ſtand, and all of them bear deplorable marks of neglect. Many of the fineſt temples are converted into Turkiſh moſques, or Greek churches, and are more diſfigured than thoſe which remain in ruins. Amidſt ſuch a plenitude of curioſities, all that can be done here is to ſelect ſome of the moſt ſtriking; and I ſhall begin with Balbec and Palmyra, which form the pride of all antiquity.

Balbec is ſituated on a riſing plain, between Tripoli, in Syria, and Damaſcus, at the foot of Mount Libanus, and is the Heliopolis of Cœlo Syria. Its remains of antiquity diſplay, according to the beſt judges, the boldeſt plan that ever was attempted in architecture. The portico of the temple of Heliopolis is inexpreſſibly ſuperb, though diſfigured by two Turkiſh towers. The hexagonal court behind it is now known only by the magnificence of its ruins. The walls were adorned with Corinthian pilaſters and ſtatues, and it opens into a quadrangular court of the ſame taſte and grandeur. The great temple to which this leads is now ſo ruined, that it is known only by an entablature, ſupported by nine lofty columns, each conſiſting of three pieces, joined together by iron pins, without cement. Some of thoſe pins are a foot long, and a foot in diameter; and the ſordid Turks are daily at work to deſtroy the columns for the ſake of the iron. A ſmall temple is ſtill ſtanding, with a pedeſtal of eight columns in front, and fifteen in flank, and every where richly ornamented with figures in alto relief, expreſſing the heads of gods, heroes, and emperors, and part of the ancient mythology. To the weſt of this temple is another, of a circular form, of the Corinthian and Ionic order, but diſfigured with Turkiſh moſques and houſes. The other parts of this ancient city are proportionably beautiful and ſtupendous.

Various have been the conjectures concerning the founders of theſe immenſe buildings. The inhabitants of Aſia aſcribe them to Solomon, but ſome make them ſo modern as the time of Antoninus Pius. Perhaps they are of different æras; and though that prince and his ſucceſſors may have rebuilt ſome part of them, yet the boldneſs of their architecture, the beauty of their ornaments, and the ſtupendous execution of the whole, ſeem to fix their foundation to a period before the Chriſtian æra, but with-

out amounting to the ancient times of the Jews, or Phœnicians, who probably knew little of the Greek ſtyle in building and ornamenting. Balbec is at preſent a little city encompaſſed with a wall. The inhabitants, who are about 5000 in number, chiefly Greeks, live in or near the circular temple, in houſes built out of the ancient ruins. A free-ſtone quarry in the neighbourhood furniſhed the ſtones for the body of the temple; and one of the ſtones, not quite detached from the bottom of the quarry, is 70 feet long, 14 broad, and 14 feet five inches deep, and reduced to our meaſure is 1135 tons. A coarſe white marble quarry, at a greater diſtance, furniſhed the ornamental parts.

Palmyra, or, as it was called by the ancients, Tadmor in the deſert, is ſituated in the wilds of Arabia Petræa, about 33 deg. of N. lat. and 200 miles to the ſouth-eaſt of Aleppo. It is approached through a narrow plain, lined as it were with the remains of antiquity; and opening all at once, the eye is preſented with the moſt ſtriking objects that are to be found in the world. The temple of the ſun lies in ruins; but the acceſs to it is through a vaſt number of beautiful Corinthian columns of white marble, the grandeur and beauty of which can only be known by the plates of it, which have been drawn and publiſhed by Mr. Wood, who, with his friends, paid it a viſit ſome years ago, purpoſely to preſerve ſome remembrance of ſuch a curioſity. As thoſe drawings, or copies from them, are now common, we muſt refer the reader to them, eſpecially as he can form no very adequate ideas of the ruins from a printed relation. Superb arches, amazing columns, a colonade extending 4000 feet in length, terminated by a noble mauſoleum, temples, fine porticos, periſtyles, intercoluminations, and entablatures, all of them in the higheſt ſtyle, and finiſhed with the moſt beautiful materials, appear on all hands, but ſo diſperſed and diſjointed, that it is impoſſible from them to form an idea of the whole when perfect. Theſe ſtriking ruins are contraſted by the miſerable huts of the wild Arabs, who reſide in or near them.

Nothing but ocular proof could convince any man, that ſo ſuperb a city, formerly 10 miles in circumference, could exiſt in the midſt of what now are tracts of barren uninhabitable ſands. Nothing however is more certain than that Palmyra was formerly the capital of a great kingdom; that it was the pride as well as the emporium of the eaſtern world, and that its merchants dealt with the Romans and the weſtern nations, for the merchandiſes and luxuries of India and Arabia. Its preſent altered ſituation, therefore, can be accounted for only by natural cauſes, which have turned the moſt fertile tracts into barren deſerts. The Aſiatics think that Palmyra, as well as Balbec, owes its original to Solomon; and in this they receive ſome countenance from ſacred hiſtory. In profane hiſtory it is not mentioned before the time of Marc Anthony; and its moſt ſuperb buildings are thought to be of the lower empire, about the time of Gallienus: Odenathus, the laſt king of Palmyra, was highly careſſed by that emperor, and even declared Auguſtus. His widow Zenobia reigned in great glory for ſome time, and Longinus, the celebrated critic, was her ſecretary. Not being able to brook the Roman tyranny, ſhe declared war againſt the emperor Aurelian, who took her priſoner, led her in triumph to Rome, and butchered her principal nobility, and among others the excellent Longinus. He afterwards deſtroyed her city, and maſſacred its inhabitants, but expended large ſums out of Zenobia's treaſures in repairing the temple of the Sun, the majeſtic ruins of which have been mentioned. This, it muſt be acknowledged, is but a very lame account of that celebrated city; nor do any of the Palmyrene inſcriptions

ſcriptions reach above the Chriſtian æra, though there can be no doubt that the city itſelf is of much higher antiquity. The emperor Juſtinian made ſome efforts to reſtore it to its ancient ſplendor, but without effect, for it dwindled, by degrees, to its preſent wretched ſtate. It has been obſerved, very juſtly, that its architecture, and the proportions of its columns, are by no means equal in purity to thoſe of Balbec.

Nothing can be more futile than the boaſted antiquities ſhown by the Greek and Armenian prieſts in and near Jeruſalem, which is well known to have been ſo often razed to the ground, and re-built anew, that no ſcene of our Saviour's life and ſufferings can be aſcertained; and yet thoſe eccleſiaſtics ſubſiſt by their forgeries, and pretending to guide travellers to every ſpot mentioned in the Old and New Teſtament. They are, it is true, under ſevere contributions to the Turks, but the trade ſtill goes on, though much diminiſhed in its profits. The church of the Holy Sepulchre, as it is called, ſaid to be built by Helena, mother to Conſtantine the Great, is ſtill ſtanding, and of tolerable good architecture; but its different diviſions, and the diſpoſitions made round it are chiefly calculated to ſupport the forgeries of its keepers. Other churches built by the ſame lady are found in Paleſtine; but the country is ſo altered in its appearance and qualities, that it is one of the moſt deſpicable of any in Aſia, and it is in vain for a moderate traveller to attempt to trace in it any veſtiges of the kingdom of David and Solomon. But let a fertile country be under the frowns of heaven, and abandoned to tyranny and wild Arabs, it will in time become a deſert. Thus oppreſſion ſoon thinned the delicious plains of Italy: and the noted countries of Greece and Aſia the Leſs, once the glory of the world, are now nearly deſtitute of learning, arts, and people.

Mecca and Medina are curioſities only through the ſuperſtition of the Mahometans. Their buildings are mean, when compared to European houſes or churches; and even the temple of Mecca, in point of architecture, makes but a ſorry appearance, though erected on the ſpot where the great prophet is ſaid to have been born. The ſame may be ſaid of the moſque at Medina, where that impoſtor was buried; ſo that the vaſt ſums ſpent yearly by Mahometan pilgrims, in viſiting thoſe places, are undoubtedly converted to temporal uſes. I ſhall not amuſe the reader with any accounts of the ſpot which is ſaid to have formed Paradiſe, and to have been ſituated between the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, where there are ſome tracts which undoubtedly deſerve that name. The different ruins, ſome of them inexpreſſibly magnificent, that are to be found in thoſe immenſe regions, cannot be appropriated with any certainty to their original founders; ſo great is the ignorance in which they have been buried for theſe thouſand years paſt. It is, indeed, eaſy to pronounce whether the ſtyle of their buildings be Greek, Roman, or Saracen: but all other information muſt come from their inſcriptions.

The neighbourhood of Smyrna (now called Iſmir) contains many valuable antiquities. The ſame may be ſaid of Aleppo, and a number of other places, celebrated in antiquity, and now known only by geographical obſervations. The ſeat of Old Troy cannot be diſtinguiſhed by the ſmalleſt veſtige, and is known only by its being oppoſite to the iſle of Tenedos, and the name of a brook which the poets magnified into a wonderful river. A temple of marble, built in honour of Auguſtus Cæſar, at Milaſſo, in Caria, and a few ſtructures of the ſame kind, in the neighbourhood, are among the antiquities that are ſtill entire. Three theatres of white marble, and a noble circus near Laodicea, now Latichea, have ſuffered very little from time or barbariſm; and ſome travellers think

think they diſcern the ruins of the celebrated temple of Diana, near Epheſus.

CHIEF CITIES, MOSQUES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS. Theſe are very numerous, and, at the ſame time, very inſignificant, becauſe they have little or no trade, and are greatly decayed from their ancient grandeur. Scanderoon ſtands upon the ſite of Old Alexandria, but it is now almoſt depopulated. Superb remains of antiquity are found in its neighbourhood. Aleppo, however, preſerves a reſpectable rank among the cities of the Aſiatic Turkey. It is ſtill the capital of Syria, and is ſuperior in its buildings and conveniences to moſt of the Turkiſh cities. Its houſes, as uſual in the Eaſt, conſiſt of a large court, with a dead wall to the ſtreet, an arcade or piazza running round it, paved with marble, and an elegant fountain of the ſame in the middle. Aleppo, and its ſuburbs, are ſeven miles in compaſs, ſtanding on eight ſmall hills, on the higheſt of which, the citadel or caſtle is erected, but of no great ſtrength. An old wall, and a broad ditch, now in many places turned into gardens, ſurround the city, which contains 235,000 inhabitants, of whom 30,000 are Chriſtians, and 5000 are Jews. It is furniſhed with moſt of the conveniences of life, excepting good water within the walls, and even that is ſupplied by an aqueduct, diſtant about four miles, ſaid to have been erected by the empreſs Helena. The ſtreets are narrow, but well paved with large ſquare ſtones, and are kept very clean. Their gardens are pleaſant, being laid out in vineyards, olive, fig, and piſtachio trees: but the country round is rough and barren. Foreign merchants are numerous here, and tranſact their buſineſs in caravanſeras, or large ſquare buildings, containing their warehouſes, lodging rooms, and 'compting houſes. This city abounds in neat, and ſome of them magnificent moſques, public bagnios, which are very refreſhing, and bazars, or market places, which are formed into long, narrow, arched, or covered ſtreets, with little ſhops, as in other parts of the Eaſt. Their coffee is excellent, and conſidered by the Turks as a high luxury; and their ſweatmeats and fruits are delicious. European merchants live here in greater ſplendour and ſafety than in any other city of the Turkiſh empire, which is owing to particular capitulations with the Porte. Coaches or carriages are not uſed here, but perſons of quality ride on horſeback, with a number of ſervants before them, according to their rank. The Engliſh, French, and Dutch, have conſuls, who are much reſpected, and appear abroad, the Engliſh eſpecially, with marks of diſtinction.

The heat of the country makes it convenient for the inhabitants to ſleep in the open air, here, all over Arabia, and many other parts of the Eaſt, for which reaſon their houſes are flat on the top. This practice accounts for the early acquaintance thoſe nations had with aſtronomy, and the motions of the heavenly bodies, and explains ſome parts of the holy ſcripture. As the Turks are very uniform in their way of living, this account of Aleppo may give the reader an idea of the other Turkiſh cities.

Bagdad, built upon the Tigris, not far, it is ſuppoſed, from the ſite of ancient Babylon, is the capital of the ancient Chaldea, and was the metropolis of the caliphate, under the Saracens, in the twelfth century. This city retains but few marks of its ancient grandeur. It is in the form of an irregular ſquare, and rudely fortified, but the conveniency of its ſituation, renders it one of the ſeats of the Turkiſh government, and it has ſtill a conſiderable trade, being annually viſited by the Smyrna, Aleppo, and weſtern caravans. The houſes of Bagdad are generally large, built of brick and cement, and arched over to admit the freer cir-

culation of the air; many of their windows are made of elegant Venetian glafs, and the ceilings ornamented with chequered work. Moft of the houfes have alfo a court-yard before them, in the middle of which is a fmall plantation of orange trees. The number of houfes is computed at 80,000, each of which pays an annual tribute to the Bafhaw, which is calculated to produce 300.000l. fterling. Their bazars, in which their tradefmen have their fhops, are tolerably handfome, large, and extenfive, filled with fhops of all kinds of merchandife, to the number of 12,000. Thefe were erected by the Perfians, when they were in poffeffion of the place, as were alfo their bagnios, and almoft every thing here worthy the notice of a traveller. In this city are five mofques, two of which are well built, and have handfome domes, covered with varnifhed tiles of feveral colours. Two chapels are permitted for thofe of the Romifh and Greek perfuafions. On the north-weft corner of the city ftands the caftle, which is of white ftone, and commands the river, conffifting of curtains, and baftions, on which fome large cannon are mounted, with two mortars in each baftion; but in the year 1779, they were fo honey-combed and bad, as to be fuppofed not to fupport one firing. Below the caftle, by the water fide, is the palace of the Turkifh governor; and there are feveral fummer-houfes on the river, which make a fine appearance. The Arabians who inhabited this city under the caliphs, were remarkable for the purity and elegance of their dialect.

Ancient Affyria is now called the Turkifh Curdiftan, though part of it is fubject to the Perfians. The capital is Curdiftan, the ancient Nineveh, being now a heap of ruins. Curdiftan is faid to be for the moft part cut out of a mountain, and is the refidence of a viceroy, or beglerbeg. Orfa, formerly Edeffa, is the capital of the fine province of Mefopotamia. It is now a mean place, and chiefly fupported by a manufacture of Turkey leather. Mouful is alfo in the fame province, a large place, fituated on the weft fhore of the Tigris, oppofite where Nineveh formerly ftood.

Georgia, or Gurgiftan, now no longer fubject to the Turks, is chiefly peopled by Chriftians, a brave, warlike race of men. Their capital, Teflis, is a handfome city, and makes a fine appearance; all the houfes are of ftone, neat and clean, with flat roofs, which ferve as walks for the women, but the ftreets are dirty and narrow; its inhabitants being about 30,000. It is fituated at the foot of a mountain, by the fide of the river Kur, and is furrounded by ftrong walls, except on the fide of the river. It has a large fortrefs on the declivity of the mountain, which is a place of refuge for criminals and debtors, and the garrifon conffifts of native Perfians. There are thirteen Greek churches in Teflis, feven Armenian, and one Roman Catholic church: the Mahometans who are here have no mofques. In the neighbourhood of the city are many pleafant houfes, and fine gardens. The Georgians, in general, are, by fome travellers faid to be the handfomeft people in the world; and fome think that they early received the practice of inoculation for the fmall pox. They make no fcruple of felling and drinking wines in their capital, and other towns; and their valour has procured them many diftinguifhing liberties and privileges. Lately they have ormed an alliance with Ruffia, under the brave prince Heraclius; as hath the czar or prince Solomon, fovereign of Immeretta, a diftrict between the Caffpian and Black Seas, who is diftinguifhed from his fubjects (all of the Greek religion) by riding on an afs, and wearing boots.

The ancient cities of Damafcus, Tyre, and Sidon, ftill retain part of heir former trade. Damafcus is called Shim, and the approach to it by the river is inexpreffively beautiful. It contains a fine mofque, which

was formerly a Chriſtian church. It ſtill is famous for its ſteel works, ſuch as ſword blades, knives, and the like; the excellent temper of which is ſaid to be owing to a quality in the water. The inhabitants manufacture alſo thoſe beautiful ſilks, called damaſks, from their city, and carry on a conſiderable traffic in raw and worked ſilk, roſe-water, extracted from the famous damaſk roſes, fruits, and wine. The neighbourhood of this city is ſtill beautiful, eſpecially to the Turks, who delight in verdure and gardens. Sidon, now Said, which likewiſe lies within the ancient Phœnicia, has ſtill ſome trade, and a tolerable harbour.

Tyre, now called Sur, about 20 miles diſtant from Sidon, ſo famous formerly for its rich dye, is now inhabited by ſcarcely any but a few miſerable fiſhermen, who live in the ruins of its ancient grandeur. There are ſtrong walls on the land ſide, of ſtone, eighteen feet high, and ſeven broad. The circumference of the place is not more than a mile and a half, and Chriſtians and Mahometans make up the number of about 500. Some of the ruins of ancient Tyre are ſtill viſible. The pavements of the old city, Mr. Bruce tells us, he ſaw, and obſerves that the were 7½ feet lower than the ground upon which the preſent city ſtands. Paſſing by Tyre (ſays our author, who deſerves much praiſe for ſome happy elucidations of ſcripture) I came to be a mournful witneſs of the truth of that prophecy, That Tyre, Queen of Nations, ſhould be a rock for fiſhers to dry their nets on*. Two wretched fiſhermen, with miſerable nets, having juſt given over their occupation, with very little ſucceſs, I engaged them, at the expence of their nets, to drag in thoſe places, where they ſaid ſhell-fiſh might be caught, in hope to have brought out one of the famous purple fiſh. I did not ſucceed, but in this I was, I believe, as lucky as the old fiſhers had ever been. The purple fiſh at Tyre ſeems to have been only a concealment of their knowledge of cochineal, as, had they depended upon the fiſh for their dye, if the whole city of Tyre applied to nothing elſe but fiſhing, they would not have coloured twenty yards of cloth in a year†.

Natolia, or Aſia Minor, comprehending the ancient provinces of Lydia, Pamphilia, Piſidia, Lycaonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, and Pontus, or Amaſia; all of them territories celebrated in the Greek and Roman hiſtory, are now, through the Turkiſh indolence and tyranny, either forſaken, or a theatre of ruins. The ſites of ancient cities are ſtill diſcernible; and ſo luxurious is nature in thoſe countries, that in many places ſhe triumphs over her forlorn condition. The ſlothful Turks cultivate no more land than maintains themſelves, and their gardens and ſummer-houſes fill up the circuit of their moſt flouriſhing cities. The moſt judicious travellers, upon an attentive ſurvey of thoſe countries, fully vindicate all that has been ſaid by ſacred and profane writers of their beauty, ſtrength, fertility, and population. Even Paleſtine and Judæa, the moſt deſpicable at preſent of all thoſe countries, lie buried within the luxuries of their own ſoil. The Turks ſeem particularly fond of repreſenting it in the moſt dreadful colours, and have formed a thouſand falſehoods concerning it, which being artfully propagated by ſome among ourſelves, have impoſed upon weak Chriſtians‡.

Whether

* Ezek. chap. xxvi. 5.

† Bruce's Travels, vol. I. Introduction, p. lix.

‡ The late reverend Dr. Shaw, profeſſor of Greek at Oxford, who ſeems to have examined that country with an uncommon degree of accuracy, and was qualified by the ſoundeſt philoſophy to make the moſt juſt obſervations, ſays, that were the Holy Land as well cultivated as in former times, it would be more fertile than the very beſt parts

Whether thoſe countries of Aſia could ever be reſtored to their ancient grandeur, trade, and population, may be a queſtion with ſome; but I apprehend that it would now be impoſſible (let the Turkiſh government be ever ſo beneficent) to divert commerce, without which all attempts of that kind muſt be feeble, from its European channels. There can, however, be no queſtion, that a government leſs brutal and bigotted than that of the Turks, might make the natives a powerful as well as a happy people within themſelves. The misfortune is, that the Greeks, Armenians, and other ſects of Chriſtians there, partake but too much of the Turkiſh ſtupidity. Though they are not ſuffered to wear white turbans, or to ride on horſeback, and are ſubjected to a thouſand indignities and miſeries, and are even, in many places, far more numerous than their oppreſſors, yet ſo abject is their ſpirit, that they make no efforts for their own deliverance, and they are contented under all their mortifications. If they are leſs indolent than their oppreſſors, it is becauſe they muſt otherwiſe ſtarve; and they dare not enjoy even the property they acquire, leſt it ſhould be diſcovered to their tyrants, who would conſider it as their own.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] Theſe objects are little attended to in the Turkiſh dominions. The nature of their government deſtroys that happy ſecurity which is the mother of arts, induſtry, and commerce; and ſuch is the debaſement of the human mind, when borne down by tyranny and oppreſſion, that all the great advantages of commerce, which nature has as it were thrown under the feet of the inhabitants by their ſituation, are here totally neglected. The advantages of Tyre, Sidon, Alexandria, and all thoſe countries which carried on the commerce of the ancient world, are overlooked. They command the navigation of the Red Sea, which opens a communication to the ſouthern ocean, and preſents them with all the riches of the Indies. Whoever looks on a map of Turkey, muſt admire the ſituation of their capital, upon a narrow ſtrait that ſeparates Europe from Aſia, and communicates on the ſouth with the Mediteranean ſea, thereby opening a paſſage to all the European nations as well as the coaſt of Africa. The ſame ſtrait, communicating northwards with the Black Sea, opens a paſſage, by means of the Danube and other great rivers, into the interior parts of Germany, Poland, and Ruſſia.

In this extenſive empire, where all the commodities neceſſary for the largeſt plan of induſtry and commerce are produced, the Turks content themſelves with manufacturing cottons, carpets, leather, and ſoap. The moſt valuable of their commodities, ſuch as ſilk, a variety of drugs, and dying ſtuffs, they generally export without giving them much additional value from their own labour. The internal commerce of the empire is extremely ſmall, and managed entirely by Jews and Armenians. In their traffic with Europe, the Turks are altogether paſſive. The Engliſh, French, Dutch, and other Europeans, reſort hither with their commodities, and bring back thoſe of Turkey in the ſame bottoms. They ſeldom attempt any diſtant voyages, and are poſſeſſed of only a few coaſting

parts of Syria and Phœnicia, becauſe the ſoil is generally much richer, and, every thing conſidered, yields larger crops. Therefore the barrenneſs, ſays he, of which ſome authors complain, does not proceed from the natural unfruitfulneſs of the country, but from the want of the inhabitants, the indolence which prevails among the few who poſſeſs it, and the perpetual diſcords and depredations of the petty princes who ſhare this fine country. Indeed the inhabitants can have but little inclination to cultivate the earth. "In Paleſtine," ſays Mr. Wood, "we have often ſeen the huſbandman ſowing, accompanied by an armed friend, to prevent his being robbed of the ſeed." And, after all, whoever ſows, is uncertain whether he ſhall ever reap the harveſt.

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veſſels in the Aſiatic Turkey, their chief royal navy lying on the ſide of Europe. The inattention of the Turks to objects of commerce is perhaps the beſt ſecurity to their government. The balance of power eſtabliſhed among the princes of Europe, and their jealouſies of one another, ſecure to the Turks the poſſeſſion of countries which in the hands of the Ruſſians, or any active ſtate, might endanger the commerce of their neighbours, eſpecially their trade with India.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] The Turkiſh government is commonly exhibited as a picture of all that is ſhocking and unnatural in arbitrary power. But from the late accounts of ſir James Porter, who reſided at the Porte, in quality of ambaſſador from his Britannic majeſty, it appears, that the rigours of that deſpotic government are conſiderably moderated by the power of religion. For though in this empire there is no hereditary ſucceſſion to property, the rights of individuals may be rendered fixed and ſecure, by being annexed to the church, which is done at an inconſiderable expence. Even Jews and Chriſtians may in this manner ſecure the enjoyment of their lands to the lateſt poſterity; and ſo ſacred and inviolable has this law been held, that there is no inſtance of an attempt on the ſide of the prince to treſpaſs or reverſe it. Neither does the obſervance of this inſtitution altogether depend on the ſuperſtition of the ſultan; he knows that any attempt to violate it would ſhake the foundations of his throne, which is ſolely ſupported by the laws of religion. Were he to treſpaſs theſe laws, he becomes an infidel, and ceaſes to be the lawful ſovereign. The ſame obſervation extends to all the rules laid down in the Koran, which was deſigned by Mahomet both as a political code and as a religious ſyſtem. The laws there enacted, having all the force of religious prejudices to ſupport them, are inviolable; and by them the civil rights of the Mahometans are regulated. Even the comments on this book, which explains the law where it is obſcure, or extend and complete what Mahomet had left imperfect, are conceived to be of equal validity with the firſt inſtitutions of the prophet; and no member of the ſociety, however powerful, can tranſgreſs them without cenſure, or violate them without puniſhment.

The Aſiatic Turks, or rather ſubjects of the Turkiſh empire, who hold their poſſeſſions by a kind of military tenure, on condition of their ſerving in the field with a particular number of men, think themſelves, while they perform that agreement, almoſt independent of his majeſty, who ſeldom calls for the head or the eſtate of a ſubject, who is not an immediate ſervant of the court. The moſt unhappy ſubjects of the Turkiſh government, are thoſe who approach the higheſt dignities of ſtate, and whoſe fortunes are conſtantly expoſed to ſudden alterations, and depend on the breath of their maſter. There is a gradation of great officers in Turkey, of whom the vizier, or prime miniſter; the chiaya, ſecond in power to the vizier; the reis effendi, or ſecretary of ſtate, and the aga of the janizaries, are the moſt conſiderable. Theſe as well as the mufti, or high prieſt, the baſhaws or governors of provinces, the civil judges, and many others, are commonly raiſed, by their application and aſſiduity, from the meaneſt ſtations in life, and are often the children of Tartar or Chriſtian ſlaves taken in war. Tutored in the ſchool of adverſity, and arriving at pre-eminence through a thouſand difficulties and dangers, theſe men are generally as diſtinguiſhed for abilities, as deficient in virtue. They poſſeſs all the diſſimulation, intrigue, and corruption, which often accompanies ambition in an humble rank, and they have a farther reaſon for plundering the people, becauſe they are uncertain how long they may poſſeſs the dignities to which they are arrived. The adminiſtration of juſtice, therefore, is extremely cor-

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rupt over the whole empire; but this proceeds from the manners of the judges, and not from the laws of the kingdom, which are founded upon very equitable principles.

REVENUES.] The riches drawn from the various provinces of this empire muſt be immenſe. The revenues ariſe from the cuſtoms, and a variety of taxes which fall chiefly on the Chriſtians, and other ſubjects, not of the Mahometan religion. The rich pay a capitation tax of 30 ſhillings a year; tradeſmen 15 ſhillings, and common labourers 6 ſhillings and ten-pence halfpenny. Another branch of the revenue ariſes from the annual tribute paid by the Tartars, and other nations bordering upon Turkey, but governed by their own princes and laws. All theſe, however, are trifling, when compared with the vaſt ſums extorted from the governors of provinces, and officers of ſtate, under the names of *preſents*. Theſe harpies, to indemnify themſelves, as we have already obſerved, exerciſe every ſpecies of oppreſſion that their avarice can ſuggeſt, till, becoming wealthy from the vitals of the countries and people they are ſent to govern, their riches frequently give riſe to a pretended ſuſpicion of diſloyalty or miſconduct, and the whole fortune of the offender devolves to the crown. The devoted victim is ſeldom acquainted with the nature of the offence, or the names of his accuſers; but, without giving him the leaſt opportunity of making a defence, an officer is diſpatched, with an imperial decree, to take off his head. The unhappy baſſa receives it with the higheſt reſpect, putting it on his head, and after he has read it, ſays, "*The will of God and the emperor be done*," or ſome ſuch expreſſion, teſtifying his entire reſignation to the will of his prince. Then he takes the ſilken cord, which the officer has ready in his boſom, and having tied it about his own neck, and ſaid a ſhort prayer, the officer's ſervants throw him on the floor, and, drawing the the cord ſtraight, ſoon diſpatch him; after which his head is cut off, and carried to the court.

FORCES.] The militia of the Turkiſh empire is of two ſorts: the firſt have certain lands appointed for their maintenance, and the other is paid out of the treaſury. Thoſe that have certain lands, amount to about 268,000 troopers, effective men. Beſides theſe, there are alſo certain auxiliary forces raiſed by the tributary countries of this empire; as the Tartars, Walachians, Moldavians, and till of late, the Georgians, who are commanded by their reſpective princes. The Khan of the Crim Tartars, before his country was ſubjected to Ruſſia, was obliged to furniſh 100,000 men, and to ſerve in perſon, when the grand-ſignior took the field. In every war, beſides the above forces, there are great numbers of volunteers, who live at their own charge, in expectation of ſucceeding the officers. Theſe adventurers do not only promiſe themſelves an eſtate if they ſurvive, but are taught, that if they die in war againſt the Chriſtians, they ſhall go immediately to Paradiſe. The forces which receive their pay from the treaſury, are called the ſpahis, or horſe-guards, and are in number about 12,000; and the janizaries, or foot-guards, who are eſteemed the beſt ſoldiers in the Turkiſh armies, and on them they principally depend in an engagement. Theſe amount to about 25,000 men who are quartered in and near Conſtantinople. They frequently grow mutinous, and have proceeded ſo far ſometimes as to depoſe the ſultan. They are educated in the ſeraglio, and trained up to the exerciſe of arms from their infancy; and there are not leſs than 100,000 foot ſoldiers, ſcattered over every province of the empire, who procure themſelves to be regiſtered in this body, to enjoy the privileges of janizaries, which are very great, being ſubject to no juriſdiction but that of their aga, or chief commander.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The emperor's titles are ſwelled with all the pomp of eaſtern magnificence. He is ſtyled by his ſubjects, *the ſhadow of God, a God on earth, Brother to the Sun and Moon, Diſpoſer of all earthly Crowns, &c.* The grand ſignior's arms are, vert, a creſcent argent, creſted with a turban, charged with three black plumes of heron's quills, with this motto, *Donec totum impleat orbem.*

COURT AND SERAGLIO.] Great care is taken in the education of the youths who are deſigned for the ſtate, the army, or the navy; but they are ſeldom preferred till about 40 years of age, and they riſe by their merit. They are generally the children of Chriſtian parents, either taken in war, purchaſed, or preſents from the viceroys and governors of diſtant provinces, the moſt beautiful, well made, and ſprightly children that can be met with, and are always reviewed and approved of by the grand ſignior, before they are ſent to the colleges or ſeminaries, where they are educated for employments according to their genius or abilities.

The ladies of the ſeraglio, are a collection of beautiful young women, chiefly ſent as preſents from the provinces and the Greek iſlands, moſt of them the children of Chriſtian parents. The brave prince Heraclius, hath, for ſome years paſt, aboliſhed the infamous tribute of children of both ſexes, which Georgia formerly paid every year to the Porte. The number of women in the harem, depends on the taſte of the reigning monarch. Sultan Selim had 2000. Achmet had but 300, and the preſent ſultan hath nearly 1600. On their admiſſion, they are committed to the care of old ladies, taught to ſew and embroider, muſic, dancing, and other accompliſhments, and furniſhed with the richeſt clothes and ornaments. They all ſleep in ſeparate beds, and between every fifth there is a preceptreſs. Their chief governeſs is called *Katon Kiaja*, or governeſs of the noble young ladies. There is not one ſervant among them, for they are obliged to wait on one another by rotation: the laſt that is entered, ſerves her who preceded her, and herſelf. Theſe ladies are ſcarcely ever ſuffered to go abroad, except when the grand ſignior removes from one place to another, when a troop of black eunuchs conveys them to the boats which are incloſed with lattices and linen curtains; and when they go by land, they are put into cloſe chariots, and ſignals are made at certain diſtances, to give notice that none approach the roads through which they march. Among the emperor's attendants are a number of mutes, who act and converſe by ſigns with great quickneſs; and ſome dwarfs, who are exhibited for the diverſion of his majeſty.

ORIGIN AND PROGRESS OF THE TURKS.] It has been the fate of the more ſouthern and fertile parts of Aſia, at different periods, to be conquered by that warlike and hardy race of men, who inhabit the vaſt country, known to the ancients by the name of Scythia, and among the moderns by that of Tartary. One tribe of theſe people, called Turks or Turcomans, which name ſignifies *wanderers*, extended its conqueſts under various leaders and during ſeveral centuries, from the ſhore of the Caſpian, to the ſtraits of the Dardanelles. Being long reſident in the capacity of body guards, about the courts of the Saracens, they embraced the doctrine of Mahomet, and acted for a long time as mercenaries in the armies of contending princes. Their chief reſidence was in the neighbourhood of mount Caucaſus, from whence they removed to Armenia Major, and after being employed as mercenaries by the ſultans of Perſia, they ſeized that kingdom, about the year 1037, and ſpread their ravages over all the neighbouring countries. Bound by their religion to make converts to Mahometaniſm, they never were without a pretence for invading and ravaging the dominions of the Greek emperors, and were

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ſometimes commanded by very able generals. Upon the declenſion of the caliphate or empire of the Saracens, they made themſelves maſters of Paleſtine; and the viſiting the Holy City of Jeruſalem being then part of the Chriſtian exerciſes, in which they had been tolerated by the Saracens, the Turks laid the European pilgrims under ſuch heavy contributions, and exerciſed ſuch horrible cruelties upon the Chriſtian inhabitants of the country, as gave riſe to the famous Cruſades, which we have mentioned more fully in the Introduction.

It unfortunately happened, that the Greek emperors were generally more jealous of the progreſs of the Chriſtians than the Turks; and though, after oceans of blood were ſpilt, a Chriſtian kingdom was erected at Jeruſalem, under Godfrey, of Boulogne, neither he nor his ſucceſſors were poſſeſſed of any real power of maintaining it. The Turks, about the year 1229, had extended their dominions on every ſide, and poſſeſſed themſelves, under Othman, of ſome of the fineſt provinces in Aſia, of Nice, and Pruſa in Bythnia, which Othman made his capital, and, as it were, firſt embodied them into a nation; hence they took the name of Othmans from that leader; the appellation of Turks, as it ſignifies in the original, *wanderers*, or *baniſhed men*, being conſidered by them as a term of reproach. Othman, is to be ſtiled the founder of the Turkiſh empire, and was ſucceeded by a race of the moſt warlike princes that are mentioned in hiſtory. About the year 1357, they paſſed the Helleſpont, and got a footing in Europe, and Amurath ſettled the ſeat of his empire at Adrianople, which he took in the year 1360: under him the order of Janizaries was eſtabliſhed. Such were their conqueſts, that Bajazet I, after conquering Bulgaria, and defeating the Greek emperor Sigiſmund, laid ſiege to Conſtantinople, in hopes of ſubjecting all the Greek empire. His greatneſs and inſolence provoked Tamerlane, a Tartarian prince, who was juſt then returned from his eaſtern conqueſts, to declare war againſt him. A deciſive battle was fought between thoſe rival conquerors, in Natolia, in the plain where Pompey defeated Mithridates, when Bajazet's army was cut in pieces, and he himſelf taken priſoner, and ſhut up in an iron cage, where he ended his life.

The ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, by declaring war againſt one another, left the Turks more powerful than ever; and though their career was checked by the valour of the Venetians, Hungarians, and the famous Scanderberg, a prince of Epirus, they gradually reduced the dominions of the Greek emperors; and, after a long ſiege, Mahomet II took Conſtantinople, in 1453. Thus, after an exiſtence of ten centuries, from its firſt commencement under Conſtantine the Great, ended the Greek empire; an event which had been long forſeen, and was owing to many cauſes; the chief was the total degeneracy of the Greek emperors themſelves, their courts and families; and the diſlike their ſubjects had to the popes, and the weſtern church, one of the patriarchs declaring publicly to a Romiſh legate, "that he would rather ſee a turban than the pope's triara upon the great altar of Conſtantinople." But as the Turks, when they extended their conqueſts, did not exterminate, but reduced the nations to ſubjection, the remains of the ancient Greeks ſtill exiſt, as we have already obſerved, particularly in Conſtantinople, and the neighbouring iſlands, where, though under grievous oppreſſions, they profeſs Chriſtianity under their own patriarchs of Conſtantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jeruſalem; and the Armenians have three patriarchs, who are richer than thoſe of the Greek church, on account of their people being richer and more converſant in trade. It is ſaid that the modern Greeks, though pining under the tyrannical yoke of the Turkiſh government, ſtill preſerve ſomewhat of the exterior appearance, though nothing of the internal principles, which diſtinguiſhed their anceſtors.

The conqueſt of Conſtantinople was followed by the ſubmiſſion of all Greece: and from this time the Turks have been looked upon as an European power.

Mahomet died in 1481, and was ſucceeded by Bajazet II, who carried on war againſt the Hungarians and Venetians, as well as the Perſians and Egyptians. Bajazet falling ill of the gout, became indolent, was haraſſed by family differences, and at laſt, by order of his ſecond ſon, Selim, he was poiſoned, by a Jew phyſician. Selim afterwards ordered his eldeſt brother, Achmet, to be ſtrangled, with many other princes of the Othman race. He defeated the Perſians and the prince of Mount Taurus; but being unable to penetrate into Perſia, he turned his arms againſt Egypt, which, after many bloody battles, he annexed to his own dominions, in the year 1517, as he did Aleppo, Antioch, Tripoli, Damaſcus, Gaza, and many other towns.

He was ſucceeded, in 1520, by his ſon, Soliman the Magnificent; who, taking advantage of the differences which prevailed among the Chriſtian powers, took Rhodes, and drove the knights from that iſland to Malta, which was given them by the emperor, Charles V. The reign of Soliman, after this, was a continual war with the Chriſtian powers, and generally ſucceſsful, both by ſea and land. He took Buda, the metropolis of Hungary, at that time, and Belgrade, and carried off near 200,000 captives, A.D. 1526, and two years afterwards advanced into Auſtria, and beſieged Vienna, but retired on the approach of Charles V. He miſcarried alſo in an attempt he made to take the iſle of Malta. This Soliman is looked upon as the greateſt prince that ever filled the throne of Othman.

He was ſucceeded, in 1566, by his ſon, Selim II. In his reign, the Turkiſh marine received an irrecoverable blow from the Chriſtians, in the batttle of Lepanto. This defeat might have proved fatal to the Turkiſh power, had the blow been purſued by the Chriſtians, eſpecially the Spaniards. Selim, however, took Cyprus from the Venetians, and Tunis in Africa, from the Moors; he was ſucceeded, in 1575, by his ſon, Amurath III, who forced the Perſians to cede Tauris, Teflis, and many other cities, to the Turks. He likewiſe took the important fortreſs of Raab, in Hungary; and in 1593, he was ſucceeded by Mahomet III. The memory of this prince is diſtinguiſhed by his ordering nineteen of his brothers to be ſtrangled, and ten of his father's concubines, who were ſuppoſed to be pregnant, to be thrown into the ſea. He was often unſucceſsful in his wars with the Chriſtians, and died of the plague in 1604. Though his ſucceſſor, Achmet, was beaten by the Perſians, yet he forced the Auſtrians to a treaty in 1606, and to conſent that he ſhould keep what he was poſſeſſed of in Hungary. Oſman, a prince of great ſpirit, but no more than ſixteen years of age, being unſucceſsful againſt the Poles, was put to death by the Janizaries, whoſe power he intended to have reduced. Morad IV ſucceeded, in 1623, and took Bagdad from the Perſians. His brother, Ibrahim, ſucceeded him in 1640; a worthleſs inactive prince, and ſtrangled by the janizaries in 1648. His ſucceſſor, Mahomet IV, was excellently well ſerved by his grand vizier, Cuperli. He took Candia from the Venetians, after it had been beſieged for thirty years. This conqueſt coſt the Venetians, and their allies, 80,000 men, and the Turks, it is ſaid, 180,000 A bloody war ſucceeded between the Imperialiſts and the Turks, in which the latter were ſo ſucceſsful, that they laid ſiege to Vienna, but were forced (as has been already mentioned) to raiſe it with great loſs, by John Sobieſki, king of Poland, and other Chriſtian generals. Mahomet was, in 1687, ſhut up in priſon by his ſubjects, and ſucceeded by his brother, Soliman II.

The Turks continued unſucceſsful in their wars during his reign, and that of his brother and ſucceſſor, Achmet II, but Muſtapha II, who mounted

mounted the throne in 1694, headed his armies in perſon, and after ſome brisk campaigns, he was defeated by prince Eugene; and the peace of Carlowitz between the Imperialiſts and Turks, was concluded in 1699. Soon after, Muſtapha was depoſed, his mufti was beheaded, and his brother, Achmet III, mounted the throne. He was the prince who gave ſhelter at Bender, to Charles XII, of Sweden; and ended a war with the Ruſſians, by a peace concluded at Pruth. When the Ruſſian army was ſurrounded without hopes of eſcape, the czarina inclined the grand-vizier to the peace, by a preſent of all the money, plate, and jewels, that were in the army, but the Ruſſians delivered up to the Turks, Aſoph, Kaminieck, and Taigarog, and agreed to evacuate Poland. He had afterwards a war with the Venetians, which alarmed all the Chriſtian powers. The ſcene of action was tranſlated to Hungary, where the Imperial general, prince Eugene, gave ſo many repeated defeats to the infidels, that they were forced to conclude a diſgraceful peace at Paſſarowitz, in 1718. An unfortunate war with the Perſians, under Kouli Khan, ſucceeding, the populace demanded the heads of the vizier, the chief admiral, and ſecretary, which were accordingly ſtruck off; but the ſultan alſo was depoſed, and Mahomet V, advanced to the throne. He was unſucceſsful in his wars with Kouli Khan, and at laſt obliged to recogniſe that uſurper as king of Perſia. He was after that, engaged in a war with the Imperialiſts and Ruſſians; againſt the former he was victorious; but the ſucceſſes of the latter, which threatened Conſtantinople itſelf, forced him to agree to a haſty treaty with the emperor, and after that, another with the Ruſſians, which was greatly to his advantage. Mahomet died 1754.

He was ſucceeded by his brother, Oſman III, who died in 1757, and was ſucceeded by his brother Muſtapha III, who died on the 21ſt of January, 1774, whilſt engaged in an unſucceſsful war with the Ruſſians, of which ſome account has been already given in the hiſtory of that country. In the courſe of this war, a conſiderable Ruſſian fleet was fitted out, which ſet ſail from the Baltic, with a view of ſhaking the remote parts of the Archipelago. This fleet having arrived at Minorca, departed from thence in the beginning of February, 1770, and ſhaped its courſe for Morea. Count Orlow having debarked ſuch land forces as he had with him at Maina, which lies a little to the weſtward of cape Metapan, and about 50 miles to the ſouth-weſt of Miſitra, the ancient Sparta; the Mainotes, the deſcendants of the Lacedæmonians, and who ſtill poſſeſſed the country of their anceſtors, under ſubjection to the grand ſignior, immediately flew to their arms in every quarter, and joined the Ruſſians by thouſands, from their averſion to the tyranny of the Turks. The other Greeks immediately followed their example, or rather only waited to hear of the arrival of the Ruſſians, to do what they had long intended; and the whole Morea ſeemed every where in motion. The open country was quickly over-run, and Miſitra, Arcadia, and ſeveral other places, as ſpeedily taken, while the Ruſſian ſhips, that had been ſeparated, or that put into Italy, arrived ſucceſſively, and landed their men in different quarters, where every ſmall detachment ſoon ſwelled into a little army, and the Turks were every where attacked or intercepted. In the mean time, the Greeks gave the utmoſt looſe to their revenge, and every where ſlaughtered the Turks without mercy; and the rage and fury with which the inhabitants of the continent where ſeized, extended itſelf to the iſlands, where alſo the Turks were maſſacred in great numbers. They were, indeed, unable to make head againſt the Ruſſians and Greeks in the field; their only protection was found within the fortreſſes. The malcontents had ſo much increaſed ſince the firſt debarkation of the Ruſſians, that they inveſted Napoli de Romania, Corinth, and the caſtle of Patras, with ſeveral other places of note. But whilſt they were employed

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in theſe enterpriſes, an army of thirty thouſand men compoſed chiefly of Albanians and Epirotes, entered the Morea, commanded by Seraſkier, Baſha of Boſnia. This Turkiſh general recovered all the northern part of the peninſula as ſoon as he appeared in it; and all the Greeks that were found in arms or out of their villages, were inſtantly put to death. The Ruſſians were now driven back to their ſhips; but about the ſame time another Ruſſian ſquadron, commanded by admiral Elphinſtone, arrived from England to reinforce count Oriow's armament. The Turkiſh fleet alſo appeared, and an obſtinate engagement was fought in the channel of Scio, which divides that iſland from Natolia, or the Leſſer Aſia. The Turkiſh fleet was conſiderably ſuperior in force, conſiſting of fifteen ſhips of the line, from ſixty to ninety guns, beſides a number of chebeques and gallies, amounting in the whole to near thirty ſail; the Ruſſians had only ten ſhips of the line, and five frigates. Some of the ſhips engaged with great reſolution, while others on both ſides found various cauſes for not approaching ſufficiently near. But Spiritof, a Ruſſian admiral, encountered the captain Pacha, in the Sultana, of ninety guns, yard arm and yard arm; they fought with the greateſt fury, and at length ran ſo cloſe, that they locked themſelves together, with grapling-irons and other tackling. In this ſituation, the Ruſſians, by throwing hand grenades from the tops, ſet the Turkiſh ſhip on fire, and as they could not now be diſentangled, both ſhips were in a little time equally in flames. Thus dreadfully circumſtanced without a poſſibility of ſuccour, they both at length blew up with a moſt terrible exploſion. The commanders and principal officers on both ſides were moſtly ſaved; but the crews were almoſt totally loſt. The dreadful fate of thoſe ſhips, as well as the danger to thoſe that were near them, produced a kind of pauſe on both ſides; after which the action was renewed, and continued till night without any material advantage on either ſide. When it became dark, the Turkiſh fleet cut their cables, and run into a bay on the coaſt of Natolia: the Ruſſians ſurrounded them thus cloſely pent up, and in the night ſome fire-ſhips were ſucceſsfully conveyed among the Turkiſh fleet, by the intrepid behaviour of lieutenant Dugdale, an Engliſhman in the Ruſſian ſervice, who, though abandoned by his crew, himſelf directed the operations of the fire-ſhips. The fire took place ſo effectually, that in five hours the whole fleet, except one man of war and a few gallies, that were towed off by the Ruſſians, was totally deſtroyed; after which they entered the harbour, and bombarded and cannonaded the town, and a caſtle that protected it, with ſuch ſucceſs, that a ſhot having blown up the powder magazine in the latter, both were reduced to a heap of rubbiſh. Thus was there ſcarcely a veſtige left, at nine o'clock, of a town, a caſtle, and a fine fleet, which had been all in exiſtence at one the ſame morning.

Some of the principal military tranſactions by land, in the war between Ruſſia and Turkey, having been already noticed in our account of the former empire, we ſhall here only add, that after a moſt unfortunate war on the ſide of the Turks, peace was at length concluded between them and the Ruſſians, on the 21ſt of July, 1774, a few months after the acceſſion of Achmet IV. The emperor, Muſtapha III, left a ſon, then only in his 13th year; but as he was too young to manage the reins of government in the then critical ſituation of the Turkiſh affairs, Muſtapha appointed his brother, the late emperor, to ſucceed him in the throne: and to this prince, under the ſtrong terms of recommendation, he confided the care of his infant ſon.

The perſeverance of the Turks, ſupplied by their numerous Aſiatic armies, and their implicit ſubmiſſion to their officers, rather than an excellency in military diſcipline or courage in war, have been the great

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ſprings of thoſe ſucceſſes which have rendered their empire ſo formidable. The extenſion, as well as duration of their empire, may indeed be in ſome meaſure owing to the military inſtitution of the Janizaries, a corps originally compoſed of children of ſuch Chriſtian parents as could not pay their taxes. Theſe being collected together, were formed to the exercife of arms under the eyes of their officers in the ſeraglio. They were generally in number about 40,000; and ſo excellent was their diſcipline, that they were deemed to be invincible: and they ſtill continue the flower of the Turkiſh armies; but the Ottoman power is in a declining ſtate. The political ſtate of Europe, and the jealouſies that ſubſiſt among its princes, is now the ſureſt baſis of this empire, and the principal reaſon why the fineſt provinces in the world are ſuffered to remain any longer in the poſſeſſion of theſe haughty infidels.

Notwithſtanding the peace which was eſtabliſhed in 1774, between Ruſſia and the Porte, various ſources of diſcord having been left open, very little tranquillity could ſubſiſt between them. For an account of theſe we refer our readers to our hiſtorical narrative of the former empire. Towards the latter end of the year 1786, the Turks ſeem to have adopted a regular ſyſtem of indirect hoſtility againſt Ruſſia, who were continually making ſuch encroachments, as made the Turks reſolve to tempt again the fortune of war. Scarce had the empreſs returned from the ſplendid journey which ſhe made to Cherſon, before a declaration of Turkiſh hoſtilities was announced at Peterſburgh. What part the emperor of Germany would take in this war was not at firſt known. The capriciouſneſs of his character kept the ſpirit of curioſity in ſuſpenſe for ſome little time; but he ſoon declared himſelf determined to ſupport all the claims which Ruſſia had upon the Porte.

Inſtead of being diſheartened at the formidableneſs of the confederacy that had broken out againſt them, the Turks applied themſelves with redoubled ardour to prepare for reſiſtance. But an event that ſeems greatly to have contributed to the bad ſucceſs experienced by the creſcent in the year 1789, was the death of Achmet the Fourth, grand ſignior, on the 7th of April.

This prince, if we make ſuitable allowances for the diſadvantages under which he laboured as a deſpotic monarch, and the prejudices of his country, may be allowed to poſſeſs ſome claim to toleration. He filled the throne of Conſtantinople without reflecting diſgrace upon human nature. His temper appears to have been mild and humane. He not only permitted Selim, his nephew, ſon of the late emperor, to live, but even publicly acknowledged him for his ſucceſſor. His reign was not ſtained with ſo many arbitrary murders as thoſe of his predeceſſors; nor did he think it at all neceſſary that a diſgraced miniſter ſhould part at once with his office and his life. He ſuffered his countrymen to improve by the arts and military diſcipline of Europe. Yſſouf, his prime miniſter, during the three laſt years of his life, though by no means conſiſtently great, muſt be allowed to deſerve our applauſe; and will be better known to poſterity as the patron of the Turkiſh tranſlation of the Encyclopédie, than as the victorious and ſkilful rival of the Auſtrian arms in the Banat of Tranſylvania.

Achmet died at the unenterprizing age of ſixty-four, and Selim the Third ſucceeded, at twenty-eight. In the vigour of youth, he thought it neceſſary to diſtinguiſh himſelf by ſomething extraordinary, and at firſt purpoſed to put himſelf at the head of his forces. He was eaſily, as might be expected from his effeminate education, diſſuaded from this rath and ridiculous project. But he conceived that at leaſt it became him

to discountenance the ministers of his predecessor, to confound their plans, and reverse all their proceedings. These ministers had acquired in some degree the confidence of those who acted under their command; and it appeared in the sequel that the fantastic splendour of a new and juvenile sovereign could not compensate for the capricious and arbitrary changes with which his accession was accompanied.

In the year 1788 Choczim and Oczakow surrendered to the arms of Russia, as will be found in the history of that country; and on the 12th of September, 1789, the Austrian forces sat down before Belgrade, and with that good fortune which seemed almost constantly to attend their present commander, marshal Laudohn. The place, together with its numerous garrison, surrendered, after a vigorous resistance, on the 8th of October. The rest of the campaign was little else than a succession of the most important successes; and a circumstance that did not a little contribute to this, was the system adopted by the Austrians and Russians, of suffering the Turkish troops to march out of the several places they garrisoned without molestation. Bucharest, the capital of Walachia, fell without opposition into the hands of prince Cobourg; while Akerman, on the Black Sea, was reduced by the Russians; and Bender surrendered to prince Potemkin, not without suspicion of sinister practices, on the 15th of November. One only check presented itself to the allied arms. The garrison of Orsova displayed the most inflexible constancy; and marshal Laudohn was obliged to raise the siege of this place in the middle of December, after having sat down before it for a period of six weeks. In a short time after, the siege was renewed, and Orsova was reduced the 16th of April, 1790.

After the reduction of Orsova, the war was carried on with languor on the part of Austria; and in the month of June a conference was agreed upon at Reichenbach, at which the ministers of Prussia, Austria, England, and the United Provinces assisted, and at which also an envoy from Poland was occasionally present. After a negociation, which continued till the 17th of August, it was agreed that a peace should be concluded between the king of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte; that the basis of this treaty should be a general surrender of all the conquests made by the former, retaining only Choczim as a security till the Porte should accede to the terms of the agreement, when it was also to be restored. On the other hand, the king of Prussia gave up the Belgic provinces, and even promised his assistance in reducing them to the Austrian dominions.

The king of Prussia was less successful in his mediation with Russia. Catherine had not, like Leopold, an Imperial crown at stake, which, unsubstantial as it is, has always its charms with those who are educated in the habitual adoration of rank and dignities. Her conquests also, on the side of Turkey, were too important to be easily relinquished; and she considered her dignity attacked by the insolent style of Prussian mediation. The substance of her answer to the Prussian memorial was therefore, "That the empress of Russia would make peace and war with whom she pleased, without the interference of any foreign power."

The campaign of 1791 opened, on the part of Russia, with the taking of Maczin, on the 4th of April, by prince Gallitzin; and in a subsequent victory, on the 12th, by the same general, in the neighbourhood of Brailow, the Turks lost not less than 4000 men, and upwards of 100 officers, besides many pieces of cannon. On the 14th the Russian arms experienced a check, by which they lost about 700 men, and were obliged to relinquish their intention of besieging Brailow. After reinforcing this place, the visir proceeded to the banks of the Danube, near Silistria; and

and by means of a bridge, which he threw acroſs the river, his advanced poſts were enabled to make incurſions on the oppoſite ſide. The ability of the vizir, and the valour of the Turks, were however exerted in vain againſt the diſcipline and experience of European armies. In the month of June, 15,000 Turks were defeated by a party of cavalry under general Kutuſow. On the 3d of July, the fortreſs of Anape was taken by general Gudowitſch; and the garriſon, to the amount of 6,000 men, made priſoners. This event was followed on the 9th of the ſame month by a ſignal victory which prince Repnin obtained near Maczin over a body of 70,000, the flower of the Turkiſh army. The Ottomans left upwards of 4000 dead upon the field of battle, and loſt their entire camp equipage, colours, and 30 pieces of cañnon. The Ruſſians are ſaid to have loſt only 150 men killed, and between 200 and 300 wounded.

While the war was thus vigorouſly carried on, the mediating powers were not inactive. Great Britain and Pruſſia, in particular, declared themſelves determined to ſupport the balance of Europe, and to force the empreſs to peace upon the baſis of a *ſtatus quo*. Of the interference of Britain in this diſpute, we have treated more largely in another place. To the firſt applications of the Engliſh miniſter, the empreſs anſwered in nearly the ſame terms in which ſhe had before replied to the memorial of Pruſſia—"That the Britiſh court would not be permitted to dictate the terms of peace." In the courſe of the negociation, however, her demands became more moderate: and as the northern powers, and particularly Denmark, began to exert themſelves for the prevention of hoſtilities, ſhe confined her views to the poſſeſſion of Oczakow, with the diſtrict extending from the Bog to the Neiſter, and even then providing for the free navigation of the latter river. The negociation was protracted to the 11th of Auguſt, when at length peace was concluded between the czarina and the Porte, nearly upon theſe terms—terms which, conſidering the ill ſucceſs of the war, cannot be accounted very diſadvantageous to the Porte, who have loſt a fortreſs more uſeful for the purpoſe of annoying Ruſſia, than for defending their own territories; but certainly of conſiderable importance to Ruſſia, which, by this ceſſion, has ſecured the peaceable poſſeſſion of the Crimea.

It is computed that in the laſt war Turkey loſt 200,000 ſoldiers; Ruſſia, 100,000; the Auſtrians, who fell in battle, or in the unhealthy marſhes, are ſuppoſed to exceed 130,000.

Selim III, grand ſignior, born in 1761; ſucceeded to the throne of Turkey, on the death of his uncle, the late ſultan, April 6, 1789.

TARTARY IN ASIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.
Length 4000	between	50 and 150 eaſt longitude.
Breadth 2400		30 and 72 north latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] IT would be deceiving the reader to deſire him to depend upon the accounts given us by geographers, of the extent, limits, and ſituation of theſe vaſt regions. Even the empreſs of Ruſſia and her miniſtry are ignorant of her preciſe limits with the Chineſe, the Perſians, and other nations. Tartary, taken in its fulleſt extent, is bounded by

the Frozen Ocean on the North, by the Pacific Ocean on the Eaſt, by China, India, Perſia, and the Caſpian Sea, on the South; and by Muſcovy on the Weſt.

Grand diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.	Sq. M.
North-eaſt diviſion	Kamſchatka Tartars	Kamtſchatka	
	Jakutſkoi Tartars	Jakutſkoi	
South-eaſt diviſion	Bratſki	Bratſki	985,380
	Thibet and Mogul Tartars	Thibet	
		Poion	
		Kudak	
North-weſt diviſion	Samoieda	Mangaſia	
	Oſtiack	Kortſkoi	
South-weſt diviſion	Circaſſian and Aſtracan Tartary	Terki	
		Aſtracan	
Middle diviſion	Siberia	Toboiſk	850.000
	Kalmuc Tartary	Bocharia	
	Uſbeck Tartary	Samarcand	339,840

Kamſchatka is a great peninſula, which extends from North to South about ſeven degrees thirty minutes. It is divided into four diſtricts, Bolcherefk, Tigilſkaia Krepoſt, Verchnei or Upper Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog, and Niſhnei or Lower Kamtſchatkoi Oſtrog.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains are Caucaſus in Circaſſia, and the mountains of Taurus and Ararat, ſo contiguous to it, that they appear like a continuation of the ſame mountains, which croſſes all Aſia from Mongalia to the Indies; and the mountains of Stolp, in the North.

SEAS.] Theſe are the Frozen Ocean, the Pacific Ocean, and the Caſpian Sea.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are, the Wolga, which runs a courſe of two thouſand miles; the Obey, which divides Aſia from Europe; the Tabol, Irtis, Geneſa or Jenſka; the Barrumpooter; the Lena, and the Argun, which divides the Ruſſian and Chineſe empires.

AIR, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this country is very different, by reaſon of its vaſt extent from north to ſouth; the northern parts reaching beyond the arctic polar circle, and the ſouthern being in the ſame latitude with Spain, France, Italy, and part of Turkey.

Nova Zembla and Ruſſian Lapland are moſt uncomfortable regions; the earth, which is covered with ſnow nine months in the year, being extremely barren, and every where incumbered with unwholeſome marſhes, uninhabited mountains, and impenetrable thickneſſes. The climate of Siberia is cold, but the air is pure and wholeſome; and Mr. Tooke obſerves, that its inhabitants, in all probability, would live to an extreme old age, if they were not ſo much addicted to an immoderate uſe of intoxicating liquors. Siberia produces rye, oats, and barley, almoſt to the 60th degree of northern latitude. Cabbages, radiſhes, turnips, and cucumbers, thrive here tolerably well; but ſcarcely any other greens. All experiments to bring fruit-trees to bear have hitherto been in vain: but there is reaſon to believe that induſtry and patience may at length overcome the rudeneſs of the climate. Currants and ſtrawberries of ſeveral ſorts are ſaid to grow here in as great perfection as in the Engliſh gardens. Herbs, as well medicinal as common, together with various edible roots, are found very generally here: but there are no bees in all Siberia. Aſtracan and the

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ſouthern parts of Tartary, are extremely fertile, owing more to nature than induſtry. The parts that are cultivated produce excellent fruits of almoſt all the kinds known in Europe, eſpecially grapes, which are reckoned the largeſt and fineſt in the world. The ſummers are very dry, and from the end of July to the begining of October, the air is peſtered, and the ſoil ſometimes ruined, by incredible quantities of locuſts. Mr. Bell, who traveled with the Ruſſian ambaſſador to China, repreſents ſome parts of Tartary as deſirable and fertile countries, the graſs growing ſpontaneouſly to an amazing height. The country of Thibet is the higheſt in Aſia, and is a part of that elevated tract which gives riſe to the rivers of India and China, and theſe of Siberia, and other parts of Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] It is ſaid that Siberia contains mines of gold, ſilver, copper, iron, jaſper, lapis lazuli, and loadſtones; a ſort of large teeth found here, creates ſome diſpute among the naturaliſts, whether they belong to elephants, or are a marine production; their appearance is certainly whimſical and curious, when poliſhed with art and ſkill. It is now apprehended that they are real, and muſt have been brought here by the waters of a deluge, being found ſeparate, as if they had been ſcattered by the waves, covered with a ſtratum of mud, and commonly intermixed with the remains of marine plants and ſimilar ſubſtances; which prove that theſe regions of Siberia were once overwhelmed with the ſea.

ANIMALS.] Theſe are camels, dromedaries, bears, wolves, and all the other land and amphibious animals that are common in the northern parts of Europe. Their horſes are of a good ſize for the ſaddle, and very hardy: as they run wild till they are five or ſix years old, they are generally headſtrong. Near Aſtracan, there is a bird called by the Ruſſians baba, of a grey colour, and ſomething larger than a ſwan: he has a broad bill, under which hangs a bag that may contain a quart, or more; he wades near the edge of a river, and on ſeeing a ſhoal or fry of ſmall fiſhes, ſpreads his wings and drives them to a ſhallow, where he gobbles as many of them as he can into his bag, and then going aſhore, eats them, or carries them to his young. Some travellers take this bird to be the pelican.

The foreſts of Siberia are well ſtocked with a variety of animals, ſome of which are not to be found in other countries. Theſe ſupply the inhabitants with food and clothes; and, at the ſame time, furniſh them with commodities for an advantageous trade. Siberia may be conſidered as the native country of black foxes, ſables, and ermines, the ſkins of which are here ſuperior to thoſe of any part of the world. Horſes and cattle are in great plenty, and ſold at low prices. The bos grunniens of Linnæus, or grunting ox, which inhabits Tartary and Thibet, hath a tail of uncommon beauty, full and flowing, of a gloſſy and ſilky texture. Theſe tails are a conſiderable article of exportation from Thibet. The Indians faſten ſmall bundles of the hair to a handle which they uſe for fly-flaps; the Chineſe dye tufts of it with a beautiful ſcarlet, to decorate their caps, and the Turks employ it as ornaments to their ſtandards, by ſome erroneouſly called horſe-tails.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, DIVERSIONS, AND DRESS.] We can form no probable gueſs as to the number of the inhabitants in Tartary; but from many circumſtances we muſt conclude, that they are far from being proportioned to the extent of their country. They are in general ſtrong made ſtout men; their faces broad, their noſes flattiſh, their eyes ſmall and black, but very quick; their beards are ſcarcely viſible, as they continually thin them by pulling up the hairs by the roots. The beauty of the Circaſſian women is a kind of ſtaple commodity in that country; for parents there make no ſcruple of ſelling their

their daughters to recruit the ſeraglios of the great men of Turkey and Perſia. They are purchaſed when young, by merchants, and taught ſuch accompliſhments as ſuit their capacities, to render them more valuable againſt the day of ſale. The Tartars are, in general, a wandering ſort of people: in their peregrinations they ſet out in the ſpring, their number in one body being frequently 10,000, preceded by their flocks and herds. When they come to an inviting ſpot, they live upon it till all its graſs and verdure is eaten up They have little money, except what they get from their neighbours the Ruſſians, Perſians, or Turks, in exchange for cattle; with this they purchaſe cloth, ſilks, ſtuffs, and other apparel for their women. They have few mechanics, except thoſe who make arms. They avoid all labour, as the greateſt ſlavery; their only employment is tending their flocks, hunting, and managing their horſes. If they are angry with a perſon, they wiſh he may live in one fixed place, and work like a Ruſſian. Among themſelves, they are very hoſpitable, and wonderfully ſo to the ſtrangers and travellers who confidentially put themſelves under their protection. They are naturally of an eaſy, cheerful temper, always diſpoſed to laughter, and ſeldom depreſſed by care or melancholy. There is a ſtrong reſemblance between the northern and independent Tartars, and ſome nations of Canada, in North America: particularly, when any of their people are infirm through great age, or ſeized with diſtempers reckoned incurable, they make a ſmall hut for the patient near ſome river, in which they leave him with ſome proviſions, and ſeldom or never return to viſit him. On ſuch occaſions, they ſay they do their parents a good office in ſending them to a better world. Notwithwanding this behaviour, many nations of the Tartars, eſpecially towards the South, are tractable, humane, and are ſuſceptible of pious and virtuous ſentiments. Their affection for their fathers, and their ſubmiſſion to their authority, cannot be exceeded; and this noble quality of filial love has diſtinguiſhed them in all ages. Hiſtory tells us, that Darius, king of Perſia, having invaded them with all the forces of his empire, and the Scythians retiring by little and little, Darius ſent an ambaſſador to demand where it was they propoſed to conclude their retreat, and when they intended to begin fighting. They returned for anſwer, with a ſpirit ſo peculiar to that people, "That they had no cities or cultivated fields, for the defence of which they ſhould give him battle: but when once he was come to the place of their father's monuments, he ſhould then underſtand in what manner the Scythians uſed to fight."

The Tartars are inured to horſemanſhip from their infancy; they ſeldom appear on foot. They are dexterous in ſhooting at a mark, inſomuch that a Tartar, while at full gallop, will ſplit a pole with an arrow, though at a conſiderable diſtance. The dreſs of the men is very ſimple, and fit for action; it generally conſiſts of a ſhort jacket, with narrow ſleeves, made of deer's ſkin, having the fur outward; trowſers and hoſe of the ſame kind of ſkin, both of one piece, and light to the limbs. The Tartars live in huts half ſunk under ground; they have a fire in the middle, with a hole in the top to let out the ſmoke, and benches round the fire to ſit or lie upon. This ſeems to be the common method of living among all the northern nations, from Lapland eaſtward, to the Japaneſe Ocean. In the extreme northern provinces, during the winter, every family burrows itſelf, as it were, under ground; and we are told, that ſo ſociable are they in their diſpoſitions, that they make ſubterraneous communications with each other, ſo that they may be ſaid to live in an inviſible city. The Tartars are immoderately fond of horſe-fleſh, eſpecially if it be young, and a little tainted, which makes their cabbins extremely nauſeous. Though horſe-fleſh be preferred raw by ſome northern tribes, the general way of eating it is after

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it has been ſmoked and dried. The Tartars purchaſe their wives with cattle. In their marriages they are not very delicate. Little or no difference is made between the child of a concubine or ſlave, and that of the wife; but among the heads of tribes, the wife's ſon is always preferred to the ſucceſſion. After a wife is turned of forty, ſhe is employed in menial duties, as another ſervant, and as ſuch muſt attend the young wives who ſucceed to her place; nor is it uncommon, in ſome of the more barbarous tribes, for a father to marry his own daughter.

The deſcendants of the old inhabitants of Siberia are ſtill moſt of them idolaters. They conſiſt of many nations, entirely different from each other in their manner of living, religion, language, and countenances. But in this they agree, that none of them follow agriculture, which is carried on by ſome Tartars, and ſuch as are converted to Chriſtianity. A few of them breed cattle, and others follow hunting. The population of Siberia has been much increaſed ſince it became a Ruſſian province; for the Ruſſians have founded therein a number of towns, fortreſſes, and villages. Notwithſtanding which, it preſents but a void and deſert view; ſince, by its extent, it is capable of ſupporting ſeveral millions more than it at preſent contains. For the manners and cuſtoms of the other Tartars belonging to the Ruſſian empire, we refer to our account of that country.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Tartars ſomewhat reſembles their civil government, and is commonly accommodated to that of their neighbours; for it partakes of the Mahometan, the Gentoo, the Greek, and even the Popiſh religions. Some of them are the groſſeſt idolaters, and worſhip little rude images, dreſſed up in rags. Each has his own deity, with whom they make very free when matters do not go according to their own mind. But the religion and government of the kingdom of Thibet and Laſſa, a large tract of Tartary, bordering upon China, are the moſt remarkable, and the moſt worthy of attention. The Thibetians are governed by the Grand Lama, or Dalai Lama, who is not only ſubmitted to, and adored by them, but it is alſo the great object of adoration for the various tribes of Heathen Tartars, who roam through the vaſt tract of continent which ſtretches from the banks of the Wolga, to Corea, on the Sea of Japan. He is not only the ſovereign pontiff, the vicegerent of the Deity on earth; but as ſuperſtition is ever the ſtrongeſt where it is moſt removed from its object, the more remote Tartars abſolutely regard him as the Deity himſelf. They believe him to be immortal, and endowed with all knowledge and virtue. Every year they come up from different parts, to worſhip and make rich offerings at his ſhrine: even the emperor of China who is a Manchou Tartar, does not fail in acknowledgements to him in his religious capacity, though the Lama is tributary to him, and actually entertains, at a great expence, in the palace of Peking, an inferior Lama, deputed, as his nuncio, from Thibet. The opinion of thoſe who are reputed the moſt orthodox among the Thibetians is, that when the Grand Lama ſeems to die, either of old age or of infirmity, his ſoul in fact only quits a crazy habitation, to look for another younger or better, and it is diſcovered again in the body of ſome child, by certain tokens, known only to the lamas or prieſts, in which order he always appears. In 1774, the Grand Lama was an infant, which had been diſcovered ſome time before by the Tayſhoo Lama, who, in authority and ſanctity of character, is next to the Grand Lama, and, during his minority, acts as chief. The lamas, who form the moſt numerous, as well as the moſt powerful body in the ſtate, have the prieſthood entirely in their hands: and, beſides fill up many monaſtic orders, which are held in great veneration among

among them. The reſidence of the Grand Lama is at Patoli, a vaſt palace on a mountain, near the banks of the Burrumpooter, about ſeven miles from Lahaſſa. The Engliſh Eaſt India Company made a treaty with the Lama in 1774. The religion of Thibet, though in many reſpects it differs from that of the Indian Bramins, yet in others it has a great affinity to it. The Thibetians have a great veneration for the cow, and alſo highly reſpect the waters of the Ganges, the ſource of which they believe to be in heaven. The Sunniaſſes, or Indian pilgrims, often viſit Thibet as a holy place, and the Lama always entertains a body of two or three hundred, in his pay. Beſides his religious influence and authority, the Grand Lama is poſſeſſed of unlimited power throughout his dominions, which are very extenſive, and border on Bengal.

Another religion, which is very prevalent among the Tartars, is that of Schamaniſm. The profeſſors of this religious ſect believe in one Supreme God, the creator of all things. They believe that he loves his creation, and all his creatures; that he knows every thing, and is all-powerful; but that he pays no attention to the particular actions of men, being too great for them to be able to offend him, or to do any thing that can be meritorious in his ſight. But they alſo maintain that the Supreme Being has divided the government of the world, and the deſtiny of men, among a great number of ſubaltern divinities, under his command and control, but who, nevertheleſs, generally act according to their own fancies; and therefore mankind cannot diſpenſe with uſing all the means in their power for obtaining their favour. They likewiſe ſuppoſe, that, for the moſt part, theſe inferior deities abominate and puniſh premeditated villainy, fraud, and cruelty. They are all firmly perſuaded of a future exiſtence; but they have many [illegible] notions and practices. Among all the Schamanes, women are conſidered as being vaſtly inferior to men, and are thought to have been created only for their ſervice, and to people the world, and to look after houſehold affairs; and, in conſequence of theſe principles, they are treated with much ſeverity and contempt.

LEARNING.] The reader may be ſurpriſed to find this article among a nation of Tartars; yet nothing is more certain, than that under Zingis Khan and Tamerlane, and their early deſcendants, Africa and the neighbouring countries were the ſeats of learning and politeneſs, as well as empire and magnificence. Modern luxury, be it ever ſo ſplendid, falls ſhort of that of thoſe princes; and ſome remains of their taſte in architecture, are ſtill extant, but in parts ſo deſolate, that they are almoſt inacceſſible. The cultivation of learning was the firſt care of the prince, and generally alſo committed to the care of his own relations or principal grandees. They wrote in the Perſian and Arabic tongues; and their hiſtories, many of which are ſtill extant in manuſcript, carry with them the ſtrongeſt marks of authenticity.

CURIOSITIES.] Theſe are comprehended in the remains of the buildings, left by the above-mentioned great conquerors and their ſucceſſors. Remains of ditches and rampart are frequently met with, which heretofore either ſurrounded ſmall towns, now quite demoliſhed, or were deſigned for the defence of camps, forts, or caſtles, the veſtiges of which are often to be diſcovered upon the ſpot, as well as other traces of decayed importance. Many of them are in tolerable preſervation, and make ſome figure, even at preſent. The Shabode, or Tartarian ſuburb of Kaſimof, on the Oka, ſeems to have been the reſidence of ſome khan. In the midſt of the ruins of that city, is a round and elevated tower, called, in their language *Miſquir*, a ſort of temple, or building, dedicated to devotion. Here are alſo the remains of the walls of a palace: and in one of the maſarets,

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of burial places, is a very conſiderable mauſoleum: all which edifices are built of hewn ſtone and bricks. From an Arabic inſcription we learn, that the khan of Schagali was buried there in the 962d year of the hegira, or the 1520th of the Chriſtian æra. Near mount Caucaſus are ſtill very conſiderable remains of Madſchar, a celebrated city of former times. In the environs of Aſtracan the ruins of ancient Aſtracan are very viſible; and the rubbiſh and ramparts of another reſpectable town ſtill exiſt near Tzaritzin, on the left ſhore of the Wolga. A little below the mouth of the Kama, which empties itſelf into the above-mentioned river, are many ſuperb monuments of the ancient city Bulgaria, conſiſting of towers, moſques, houſes, and ſepulchres, all built of ſtone or brick. The oldeſt epitaphs have been there more than eleven centuries, and the moſt modern at leaſt four hundred years. Not far from hence, on the Tſcheremtſcham, a little river that runs into the Wolga, are found ruins ſomewhat more injured by the depredations of time: they are thoſe of Boulmer, an ancient and very conſiderable city of the Bulgarians. The Tartars have erected upon its ruins the ſmall town of Bilyairik. In the fortreſs of Kaſan is a monument of the ancient Tartarian kingdom of that name. Its lofty walls are ſo broad, that they ſerve at preſent for ramparts; the turrets of which, as well as the old palace of the khan, are built of hewn ſtone. Aſcending the river Kaſanka, we meet with epitaphs, and the ſtrong ramparts of the old Kaſan. Near the Oufa are cemeteries full of innumerable inſcriptions, and ſeveral ſepulchral vaults. The ramparts of Sibir, the ancient capital of Tartary, are ſtill ſeen about Toboliſk upon the Irtiſh. The lofty walls of Tintoura appear yet in the Baraba, a little gulf in the river Om; and near the mouth of the Ourai are the ditches of the city Saratſchik. Not to mention a great number of other cities and ruins of Siberia; and eſpecially all thoſe that are to be met with in the deſert of Kirguis, which abounds in the relics of opulent cities. Some gold and ſilver coins have likewiſe been found with ſeveral manuſcripts neatly written, which have been carried to Peterburgh. In 1720, there were found in Calmuc Tartary a ſubterraneous houſe of ſtone, ſome urns, lamps, and ear-rings; an equeſtrian ſtatue; an oriental prince with a diadem on his head, two women ſeated on thrones, and a roll of manuſcripts, which was ſent by Peter the Great to the Academy of Inſcriptions at Paris, and proved to be in the language of Thibet. The quantity of gold ornaments found in the tombs of Siberia; and of elegant workmanſhip, as bracelets, collars in the ſhape of ſerpents, vaſes, crowns, rings, bucklers, ſabres, figures of animals, Tartar idols, &c. is ſurpriſing. It is ſuppoſed that theſe burial places were made about the time of Zingis Khan, and that the ſuperſtition prevailed in thoſe parts, of departed ſouls following the ſame kind of life they did in this world, and therefore on the death of a prince, they ſacrificed his favourite wife, &c. and buried with him his arms and other valuable things.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of theſe we know little but the names, and that they are in general no better than fixed hordes. They may be ſaid to be places of abode rather than towns or cities, for we do not find that they are under any regular government, or that they can make a defence againſt an enemy. The few places, however, that are mentioned in the preceding diviſions of this country, merit notice. Toboliſk and Aſtracan are conſiderable cities, the firſt containing 15,000, and the latter 70,000 inhabitants. Forts, villages, and towns, have alſo lately been erected in different parts of Siberia, for civilizing the inhabitants, and rendering them obedient to the Ruſſian government.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] This head makes no figure in the hiſtory of Tartary, their chief traffic conſiſting in cattle, fine ox tails, ſkins, beavers, rhubarb, muſk, and fiſh. The Aſtracans, notwithſtanding

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their interruptions by the wild Tartars, carry on a conſiderable traffic into Perſia, to which they export red leather, woollen and linen cloth, and ſome European manufactures. The Bucharians alſo are a very commercial people: their caravans travel through a great part of Aſia, and traffic with Thibet, China, India, Perſia, and Ruſſia. Their principal marts are Tomſk and Orenburg. Gold-duſt is often found in the ſand of the rivers of Bucharia.

HISTORY.] Though it is certain that Tartary, formerly known by the name of Scythia, peopled the northern parts of Europe, and furniſhed thoſe amazing numbers, who, under, various names, deſtroyed the Roman empire, yet it is now but very thinly inhabited; and thoſe fine provinces, where learning and the arts reſided, are now ſcenes of horror and barbarity. This muſt have been owing to the dreadful maſſacres made among the nations by the two above mentioned conquerors and their deſcendants; for nothing is more common in their hiſtories, than their putting to the ſword three or four hundred thouſand people in a few days.

The country of Uſbec Tartary was once the ſeat of a more powerful empire than that of Rome or Greece. It was not only the native country but the favorite reſidence of Zingis or Jenghis Khan, and Tamerlane, who enriched it with the ſpoils of India and the eaſtern world. But ſome atuhors have abſurdly queſtioned the veracity of the hiſtorians of theſe great conquerors, though it be better eſtabliſhed than that of the Greek or Roman writers. The ſame may be ſaid of Tamerlane, whoſe memory has been more permanent than that of Zingis Khan: his defeat of the Turkiſh emperor Bajazet, hath been noticed in the hiſtory of that nation, and great were his conqueſts. His deſcent is claimed not only by all the Khans, and petty princes of Tartary, but by the emperor of Indoſtan himſelf. The capital of this country is Bokharia, which was known to the ancients by the name of Bucharia; and it is ſituated in the latitude of 32 degrees 15 minutes, and 13 miles diſtant from the once famous city of Samarcand, the birth-place of Tamerlane the Great.

The preſent inhabitants of this immenſe common, compoſe innumerable tribes, who range at pleaſure with their flocks and their herds, in the old patriarchal manner. Their tribes are commanded by ſeparate Khans or leaders, who, upon particular emergencies, elect a great Khan, who claims a paramount power over ſtrangers as well as natives, and who can bring into the field from 20 to 100,000 horſemen. Their chief reſidence is a kind of military ſtation; which is moved and ſhifted according to the chance of war and other occaſions. When the vaſt dominions of Zingis Khan fell to pieces, under his ſucceſſors in the 16th century, the Mogul and Tartar hordes who had formed one empire, again ſeparated, and have ſince continued diſtinct. They are bounded on every ſide by the Ruſſian, the Chineſe, the Mogul, the Perſian, or the Turkiſh empires: each of whom are puſhing on their conqueſts in this extenſive, and in ſome places fertile country. The Khans pay a tribute, or acknowledgement of their dependency upon one or other of their powerful neighbours, who treat them with caution and lenity; as the friendſhip of theſe barbarians is of the utmoſt conſequence to the powers with whom they are allied. Some tribes, however, affect independency: and when united they form a powerful body, and of late have been very formidable to their neighbours, particularly to the Chineſe.

The method of carrying on war, by waſting the country, is very ancient among the Tartars, and practiſed by all of them from the Danube eaſtward. This circumſtance renders them a dreadful enemy to regular troops, who muſt thereby be deprived of all ſubſiſtence; while the Tartars, having always many ſpare horſes to kill and eat, are at no loſs for proviſions.

THE EMPIRE OF CHINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1450 Breadth 1260	between	20 and 42 north latitude. 98 and 123 east longitude.	1,105,000
Chinese Tartary.			644,000

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded by Tartary and an amazing ſtone wall of five hundred leagues in length, on the North; by the Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America, on the Eaſt; by the Chineſian Sea, South: and by Tonquin, and the Tartarian countries and mountains of Thibet and Ruſſia, on the Weſt.

DIVISIONS.] The great diviſion of this empire, according to the authors of the Univerſal Hiſtory, and the abbé Groſier, in his General Deſcription of China, is into fifteen provinces (excluſive of that of Lyautong, which is ſituated without the great wall, though under the ſame dominion); each of which might, for their largeneſs, fertility, populouſneſs, and opulence, paſs for ſo many diſtinct kingdoms. We give the following account of the diviſion of this empire from the beſt authority:

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Pe-tcheli	Pekin
Kiang-nan	Kiang-ning fou
Kian-ſi	Nan-tchang-fou
Fo-kien	Fou-tcheou-fou
Tche-kiang	Hang-tcheou-fou
Hou-quang	Vou-tchang-fou
Ho-nan	Cai-ſong-fou
Chan-tong	Tſi-nan-fou
Chan ſi	Tai-yuen-fou
Chen-ſi	Si-ngan-fou
Se-tchuen	Tching-tou-fou
Quang-tong	Canton
Quang-ſi	Quei-ling-fou
Yun-nan	Yionan-fou
Koei-Tcheou	Koei-Yang

States tributary to CHINA.

Corea
Tong king.
Cochin China
Thibet
The country of Ha-mil
The iſles of Lieou-kicou

CHINESE TARTARY.

This is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the eaſt by the gulf of Kamtſchatka and the Eaſtern Sea; on the ſouth by China; and on the weſt by the country of the Kalmouks, who are eſtabliſhed between the Caſpian Sea, and Caſghar.

EASTERN CHINESE TARTARY

Extends north and ſouth from the 41ſt to the 55th degree of north latitude, and eaſt and weſt from about the 137th degree of longitude to the Eaſtern Sea. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; on the ſouth by the gulf of Lea-tong and Corea; on the eaſt by the Eaſtern Sea; and on the weſt by the country of the Moguls. The country is divided into three grand departments.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Chen-yang	Mougdon
Kirin	Kirin
Tritcicar	Tritcicar

But

But it is neceſſary to acquaint the reader, that the informations contained in Du Halde's voluminous account of China, are drawn from the papers of Jeſuits, and other religious ſent thither by the pope, but whoſe miſſions have been at an end for above half a century. Some of thoſe fathers were men of penetration and judgment, and had great opportunities of being informed about a century ago; but even their accounts of this empire are juſtly to be ſuſpected. They had powerful enemies at the court of Rome, where they maintained their footing only by magnifying their own labours and ſucceſſes, as well as the importance of the Chineſe empire. If their accounts are to be received with much caution, much more are thoſe of ſucceeding travellers, who have it ſcarce in their power to enter the empire farther than what is abſolutely neceſſary for the purpoſes of trade. On account of this want of information, therefore, which is acknowledged even by M. Groſier, the lateſt writer on the ſubject, we muſt be much more brief in our deſcription of this celebrated empire, than otherwiſe we would wiſh to be.

NAME.] It is probably owing to a Chineſe word, ſignifying middle, from a notion the natives had, that their country lay in the middle of the world.

MOUNTAINS.] China, excepting to the north, is a plain country, and contains no remarkable mountains.

RIVERS AND WATER.] The chief are the Yamour and the Argun, which are the boundary between the Ruſſian and Chineſe Tartary; the Crocceus, or Whambo, or the Yellow River; the Kiam, or the Blue River; and the Tay. Common water in China is very indifferent, and is in ſome places boiled to make it fit for uſe.

BAYS.] The chief are thoſe of Nankin and Canton.

CANALS.] Theſe are ſufficient to entitle the ancient Chineſe to the character of a moſt wiſe and induſtrious people. The commodiouſneſs and length of their canals are incredible. The chief of them are lined with hewn ſtone on the ſides, and they are ſo deep, that they carry large veſſels, and ſometimes they extend above 1000 miles in length. Thoſe veſſels, are fitted up for all the conveniences of life; and it has been thought by ſome, that in China the water contains as many inhabitants as the land. They are furniſhed with ſtone quays, and ſometimes with bridges of an amazing conſtruction. The navigation is ſlow, and the veſſels ſometimes drawn by men. No precautions are wanting, that could be formed by art or perſeverance, for the ſafety of the paſſengers, in caſe a canal is croſſed by a rapid river, or expoſed to torrents from the mountains. Theſe canals, and the variety that is ſeen upon their borders, render China delightful in a very high degree, as well as fertile, in places that are not ſo by nature.

FORESTS.] Such is the induſtry of the Chineſe, that they are not encumbered with foreſts or wood, though no country is better fitted for producing timber of all kinds. They ſuffer, however, none to grow but for ornament and uſe, or on the ſides of mountains, from whence the trees, when cut down, can be conveyed to any place by water.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The air of this empire is according to the ſituation of the places. Towards the north it is ſharp, in the middle mild, and in the ſouth hot. The ſoil is, either by nature or art, fruitful of every thing that can miniſter to the neceſſities, conveniences, or luxuries of life. The culture of the cotton, and the rice fields, from which the bulk of the inhabitants are clothed and fed, is ingenious almoſt beyond deſcription. The rare trees, and aromatic productions, either ornamental or medicinal, that abound in other parts of the world, are to be found in

China, and ſome are peculiar to itſelf; but even a catalogue of them would form a little volume. Some, however, muſt be mentioned.

The tallow-tree, has a ſhort ſtump, ſmooth bark, crooked branches, red leaves, ſhaped like a heart, and is about the height of a common cherry-tree. The fruit it produces has all the qualities of our tallow, and when manufactured with oil, ſerves the natives as candles; but they ſmell ſtrong, nor is their light clear. Of the other trees peculiar to China, are ſome which yield a kind of flour; ſome partake of the nature of pepper. The gum of ſome is poiſonous, but affords the fineſt varniſh in the world. After all that can be ſaid of theſe, and many other beautiful and uſeful trees, the Chineſe, notwithſtanding their induſtry, are ſo wedded to their ancient cuſtoms, that they are very little, if at all, meliorated by cultivation. The ſame may be ſaid of their richeſt fruits, which, in general, are far from being ſo delicious as thoſe of Europe, and indeed of America. This is owing to the Chineſe never practiſing grafting, or inoculation of trees, and knowing nothing of experimental gardening.

It would be unpardonable here not to mention the raw ſilk, which ſo much abounds in China, and, above all, the *tea-plant*, or ſhrub. It is planted in rows, and pruned to prevent luxuriancy. Notwithſtanding our long intercourſe with China, writers are ſtill divided about the different ſpecies and culture of this plant. It is generally thought, that the green and bohea grow on the ſame ſhrub, but that the latter admits of ſome kind of preparation, which takes away its raking qualities, and gives it a deeper colour. The other kinds, which go by the names of imperial, congo, ſinglo, and the like, are occaſioned probably by the nature of the ſoils, and from the provinces in which they grow. The culture of this plant ſeems to be very ſimple; and it is certain that ſome kinds are of a much higher and more delicious flavour than others. It is thought that the fineſt, which is called the flower of the tea, is imported over land to Ruſſia; but we know of little difference in their effects on the human body. The greateſt is between bohea and green.

It is ſuppoſed that the Portugueſe had the uſe of tea long before the Engliſh, but it was introduced among the latter before the Reſtoration, as mention is made of it in the firſt act of parliament, that ſettled the exciſe on the king for life, in 1660. Catharine, of Liſbon, wife to Charles II, rendered the uſe of it common at his court. The *ginſeng*, ſo famous among the Chineſe as the univerſal remedy, and monopolized even by their emperors, is now found to be but a common root, and is plentiful in Britiſh-America. When brought to Europe, it is little diſtinguiſhed for its healing qualities; and this inſtance alone ought to teach us with what caution the former accounts of China are to be read. The ginſeng, however, is a native of the Chineſe Tartary.

METALS AND MINERALS.] China (if we are to believe ſome naturaliſts) produces all metals and minerals that are known in the world. White copper is peculiar to itſelf, but we know of no extraordinary quality it poſſeſſes. One of the fundamental maxims of the Chineſe government is that of not introducing a ſuperabundance of gold and ſilver, for fear of hurting induſtry. Their gold mines, therefore, are but ſlightly worked, and the currency of that metal is ſupplied by the grains the people pick up in the ſand of rivers and mountains. The ſilver ſpecie is furniſhed from the mines of Honan.

POPULATION AND INHABITANTS.] According to ſome accounts, there are fifty-eight millions of inhabitants in China, and all between twenty and ſixty years of age, pay an annual tax. Notwithſtanding the induſtry of the people, their amazing population frequently occaſions a dearth.

Parents,

Parents, who cannot ſupport their female children, are allowed to caſt them into the river; but they faſten a gourd to the child, that it may float on the water; and there are often compaſſionate people of fortune, who are moved by the cries of the children to ſave them from death. The Chineſe, in their perſons, are middle ſized, their faces broad, their eyes black and ſmall, their noſes rather ſhort. The Chineſe have particular ideas of beauty. They pluck up the hairs of the lower part of their faces by the roots with tweezers, leaving a few ſtraggling ones by way of beard. Their Tartar princes compel them to cut off the hair of their heads, and, like Mahometans, to wear only a lock on the crown. Their complexion, towards the north, is fair, towards the ſouth, ſwarthy, and the fatter a man is, they think him the handſomer. Men of quality and learning, who are not much expoſed to the ſun, are delicately complexioned, and they who are bred to letters let the nails of their fingers grow to an enormous length, to ſhow that they are not employed in manual labour.

The women have little eyes, plump, roſy lips, black hair, regular features, and a delicate though florid complexion. The ſmallneſs of their feet is reckoned a principal part of their beauty, and no ſwathing is omitted, when they are young, to give them that accompliſhment, ſo that when they grow up, they may be ſaid to totter rather than to walk. This fanciful piece of beauty was probably invented by the ancient Chineſe, to palliate their jealouſy.

To enter into all the ſtarch ridiculous formalities of the Chineſe, eſpecially of their men of quality, when paying or receiving viſits, would give little information and leſs amuſement, and very probably come too late, as the manners of the Chineſe, ſince they fell under the power of the Tartars, are greatly altered, and daily vary. It is ſufficient to obſerve, that the legiſlators of China, looking upon ſubmiſſion and ſubordination as the corner ſtones of all ſociety, deviſed thoſe outward marks of reſpect, ridiculous as they appear to us, as the teſt of duty and reſpect from inferiors to ſuperiors; and their capital maxim was, that the man who was deficient in civility, was void of good ſenſe.

The Chineſe, in general, have been repreſented as the moſt diſhoneſt, low, thieving ſet in the world; employing their natural quickneſs only to improve the arts of cheating the nations they deal with, eſpecially the Europeans, whom they cheat with great eaſe, particularly the Engliſh; but they obſerve that none but a Chineſe can cheat a Chineſe. They are fond of law diſputes beyond any people in the world. Their hypocriſy is without bounds; and the men of property among them practiſe the moſt avowed bribery, and the loweſt meanneſſes to obtain preferment. It ſhould however, be remembered, that ſome of the late accounts of China, have been drawn up by thoſe who were little acquainted with any parts of that empire, but the ſea-port towns; in which they probably met with many knaviſh and deſigning people. But it ſeems not juſt to attempt to characteriſe a great nation by a few inſtances of this kind, though well atteſted; and we appear not to be ſufficiently acquainted with the interior parts of China to form an accurate judgment of the manners and character of the inhabitants. By ſome of the Jeſuit miſſionaries, the Chineſe ſeem to have been too much extolled, and by later writers too much degraded.

Dress.] This varies according to the diſtinction of ranks, and is entirely under the regulation of the law, which has even fixed the colours that diſtinguiſh the different conditions. The emperor, and princes of the blood, have alone a right to wear yellow; certain mandarines are intitled to wear ſattin of a red ground, but only upon days of ceremony: in general,

general, they are clothed in black, blue, or violet. The colour to which the common people are confined, is blue or black; and their dreſs is always compoſed of plain cotton cloth. The men wear caps on their heads, of the faſhion of a bell; thoſe of quality are ornamented with jewels. The reſt of their dreſs is eaſy and looſe, conſiſting of a veſt and ſaſh, a coat or gown thrown over them, ſilk boots quilted with cotton, and a pair of drawers. The ladies towards the ſouth, wear nothing on their head. Sometimes their hair is drawn up in a net, and ſometimes it is diſhevelled. Their dreſs differs but little from that of the men, only their gown or upper garment has very large, open ſleeves. The dreſs of both men and women varies, however, according to the climate.

MARRIAGES.] The parties never ſee each other, in China, till the bargain is concluded by the parents, and that is generally when the parties are perfect children. Next to being barren, the greateſt ſcandal is to bring females into the world; and if a woman of poor family happens to have three or four girls ſucceſſively, it not unfrequently happens that ſhe will expoſe them on the high roads, or caſt them into a river.

FUNERALS.] People of note cauſe their coffins to be made, and their tombs to be built in their life-time. No perſons are buried within the walls of a city, nor is a dead corpſe ſuffered to be brought into a town if a perſon died in the country. Every Chineſe keeps in his houſe a table, upon which are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great grandfather, before which they frequently burn incenſe, and proſtrate themſelves; and when the father of a family dies, the name of the great grandfather is taken away, and that of the deceaſed is added.

LANGUAGE.] The Chineſe language contains only three hundred and thirty words, all of one ſyllable; but then each word is pronounced with ſuch various modulations, and each with a different meaning, that it becomes more copious than could be eaſily imagined, and enables them to expreſs themſelves very well on the common occaſions of life. The miſſionaries who adapt the European characters as well as they can, to the expreſſion of Chineſe words, have deviſed eleven different, and ſome of them very compounded, marks and aſpirations, to ſignify the various modulations, elevations, and depreſſions of the voice, which diſtinguiſh the ſeveral meanings of the ſame monoſyllable. The Chineſe oral language being thus barren and contracted, is unfit for literature; and, therefore, their literature is all compriſed in arbitrary characters, which are amazingly complicated and numerous, amounting to about eighty thouſand. This language being wholly addreſſed to the eye, and having no affinity with their tongue, as ſpoken, the latter hath ſtill continued in its original rude, uncultivated ſtate, while the former has received all poſſible improvement.

GENIUS AND LEARNING.] The genius of the Chineſe is peculiar to themſelves, they have no conception of what is beautiful in writing, regular in architecture, or natural in painting, and yet, in their gardening, and planning their grounds, they hit upon the true ſublime and beautiful. They perform all the operations of arithmetic with prodigious quickneſs, but differently from the Europeans. Till the latter came among them, they were ignorant of mathematical learning, and all its depending arts. They had no proper apparatus for aſtronomical obſervations; and the metaphyſical learning which exiſted among them, was only known to their philoſophers; but even the arts introduced by the Jeſuits, were of very ſhort duration among them, and laſted very little longer than the reign of Canghi, who was contemporary with our Charles II, nor is it very probable they will ever be revived. It has been generally ſaid, that they underſtood printing

befor

before the Europeans; but that can only be applied to block-printing, for the fuſile and moveable types were undoubtedly Dutch or German inventions. The Chineſe, however, had almanacs, which were ſtamped from plates or blocks, many hundred years before printing was diſcovered in Europe.

The difficulty of maſtering and retaining ſuch a number of arbitrary marks and characters as there are in what may be called the Chineſe written language, greatly retards the progreſs of their erudition. But there is no part of the globe where learning is attended with ſuch honours and rewards, and where there are more powerful inducements to cultivate and purſue it. The literati are reverenced as another ſpecies, and are the only nobility known in China. If their birth be ever ſo mean and low, they become mandarins of the higheſt rank, in proportion to the extent of their learning. On the other hand, however exalted their birth may be, they quickly ſink into poverty and obſcurity, if they neglect thoſe ſtudies which raiſed their fathers. It has been obſerved, that there is no nation in the world where the firſt honours of the ſtate lie ſo open to the loweſt of the people, and where there is leſs of hereditary greatneſs. The Chineſe range all their works of literature into four claſſes. The firſt is the claſs of *King*, or the ſacred books, which contain the principles of the Chineſe religion, morality, and government, and ſeveral curious and obſcure records, relative to theſe important ſubjects. Hiſtory forms a claſs apart: yet, in this firſt claſs, there are placed ſome hiſtorical monuments on account of their relation to religion and government, and among others the *Tekun tſicou*, a work of Confucius, which contains the annals of twelve kings of Low, the native country of that illuſtrious ſage. The ſecond claſs is that of the *Su*, or *Che*, that is, of hiſtory and the hiſtorians. The third claſs, called *Tſu*, or *Tſe*, comprehends philoſophy and the philoſophers, and contains all the works of the Chineſe literati, the productions alſo of foreign ſects and religions, which the Chineſe conſider only in the light of philoſophical opinions, and all books relative to mathematics, aſtronomy, phyſic, military ſcience, the art of divination, agriculture, and the arts and ſciences in general. The fourth is called *Tcie*, or *Miſcellanies*, and contains all the poetical books of the Chineſe, their pieces of eloquence, their ſongs, romances, tragedies, and comedies. The Chineſe literati in all the periods of their monarchy, have applied themſelves leſs to the ſtudy of nature, and to the reſearches of natural philoſophy, than to moral inquiries, the practical ſcience of life, and internal polity and manners. It is ſaid that it was not before the dynaſty of the Song in the 10th and 11th centuries after Chriſt, that the Chineſe philoſophers formed hypotheſes concerning the natural ſyſtem of the univerſe, and entered into diſcuſſions of a ſcholaſtic kind, in conſequence, perhaps, of the intercourſe they had long kept up with the Arabians, who ſtudied with ardour the works of Ariſtotle. And ſince the Chineſe have begun to pay ſome attention to natural philoſophy, their progreſs in it has been much inferior to that of the Europeans.

The invention of gunpowder is juſtly claimed by the Chineſe, who made uſe of it againſt Zinghis Khan and Tamerlane. They ſeem to have known nothing of ſmall fire-arms, and to have been acquainted only with the cannon, which they call the fire-pan. Their induſtry in their manufactures of ſtuffs, porcelane, japanning, and the like ſedentary trades, is amazing, and can be equalled only by their labours in the field, in making canals, levelling mountains, raiſing gardens, and navigating their junks and boats.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] Few natural curioſities preſent themſelves in China, that have not been comprehended under preceding articles. Some volcanos, and rivers and lakes of particular qualities, are to be found

found in different parts of the empire. The Volcano of Linefung is ſaid ſometimes to make ſo furious a diſcharge of fire and aſhes, as to occaſion a tempeſt in the air: and ſome of their lakes are ſaid to petrify fiſhes when put into them. The great wall ſeparating China from Tartary, to prevent the incurſions of the Tartars, is ſuppoſed to extend from 1200 to 1500 miles. It is carried over mountains and vallies, and reaches, according to M. Groſier, from the province of the Shenſi to the Whang-Hay, or Yellow-Sea. It is in moſt places built of brick and mortar, which is ſo well tempered that though it has ſtood for 1800 years, it is but little decayed. The beginning of this wall is a large bulwark of ſtone raiſed in the ſea, in the province of Petcheli, to the eaſt of Peking, and almoſt in the ſame latitude: it is built like the walls of the capital city of the empire, but much wider, being terraſſed and caſed with bricks, and is from twenty to twenty-five feet high. P. Regis and the other gentleman who took a map of theſe provinces, often ſtretched a line on the top, to meaſure the baſis of triangles, and to take diſtant points with an inſtrument. They always found it paved wide enough for five or ſix horſemen to travel abreaſt with eaſe. Mention has been already made of the prodigious canals and roads that are cut through this empire.

The artificial mountains preſent on their tops, temples, monaſteries, and other edifices. Some part, however, of what we are told concerning the cavities in theſe mountains, ſeems to be fabulous. The Chineſe bridges cannot be ſufficiently admired. They are built ſometimes upon barges ſtrongly chained together, yet ſo as to be parted, and to let the veſſels paſs that ſail up and down the river. Some of them run from mountain to mountain, and conſiſt only of one arch; that over the river Saffrany is 400 cubits long and 500 high, though a ſingle arch, and joins two mountains, and ſome in the interior parts of the empire are ſaid to be ſtill more ſtupendous. The triumphal arches of this country form the next ſpecies of artificial curioſities. Though they are not built in the Greek or Roman ſtyle of architecture, yet they are ſuperb and beautiful, and erected to the memory of their great men, with vaſt labour and expence. They are ſaid in the whole to be eleven hundred, two hundred of which are particularly magnificent. Their ſepulchral monuments make likewiſe a great figure. Their towers, the models of which are now ſo common in Europe, under the name of pagodas, are vaſt embelliſhments to the face of their country. They ſeem to be conſtructed by a regular order, and all of them are finiſhed with exquiſite carvings and gildings, and other ornaments. That at Nanking, which is 200 feet high, and 40 in diameter, is the moſt admired. It is called the Porcelain Tower, becauſe it is lined with Chineſe tiles. Their temples are chiefly remarkable for the fanciful taſte in which they are built, for their capaciouſneſs, their whimſical ornaments, and the uglineſs of the idols they contain. The Chineſe are remarkably fond of bells, which give name to one of their principal feſtivals. A bell of Peking weighs 120,000 pounds, but its ſound is ſaid to be diſagreeable. The laſt curioſity I ſhall mention, is their fire-works, which in China exceed thoſe of all other nations. In ſhort, every province in China is a ſcene of curioſities. Their buildings, except the pagodas, being confined to no order, and ſuſceptible of all kinds of ornaments, have a wild variety, and a pleaſing elegance, not void of magnificence, agreeable to the eye and the imagination, and preſents a diverſity of objects not to be found in European architecture.

CHIEF CITIES.] Little can be ſaid of theſe more than that ſome of them are immenſe, and there is great reaſon to believe their population is much exaggerated. The empire is ſaid to contain 4409 walled cities; the

chief of which are Peking, Nanking, and Canton. Peking, the capital of the whole empire of China, and the ordinary reſidence of the emperors, is ſituated in a very fertile plain, 20 leagues diſtant from the great wall. It is an oblong ſquare, and is divided into two cities: that which contains the emperor's palace is called the Tartar city, becauſe the houſes were given to the Tartars when the preſent family came to the throne; and they refuſing to ſuffer the Chineſe to inhabit it, forced them to live without the walls, where they in a ſhort time built a new city; which by being joined to the other, renders the whole of an irregular form, ſix leagues in compaſs. The walls and gates of Peking are of the ſurpriſing height of fifty cubits, ſo that they hide the whole city; and are ſo broad, that centinels are placed upon them on horſeback; for there are ſlopes within the city of conſiderable length, by which horſemen may aſcend the walls; and in ſeveral places there are houſes built for the guards. The gates, which are nine in number, are neither embelliſhed with ſtatues, nor other carving, all their beauty conſiſting in their prodigious height, which at a diſtance gives them a noble appearance. The arches of the gates are built of marble, and the reſt with large bricks, cemented with excellent mortar. Moſt of the ſtreets are built in a direct line; the largeſt are about 120 feet broad, and a league in length. The ſhops where they ſell ſilks and china-ware generally take up the whole ſtreet, and afford a very agreeable proſpect. Each ſhop-keeper places before his ſhop, on a ſmall kind of pedeſtal, a board about twenty feet high, painted, varniſhed, and often gilt, on which are written in large characters the names of the ſeveral commodities he ſells. Theſe being placed on each ſide of the ſtreet, at nearly an equal diſtance from each other, have a very pretty appearance; but the houſes are poorly built in front, and very low, moſt of them having only a ground floor, and none exceeding one ſtory above it. Of all the buildings in this great city, the moſt remarkable is the imperial palace, the grandeur of which does not conſiſt ſo much in the nobleneſs and elegance of the architecture, as the multitude of its buildings, courts, and gardens, all regularly diſpoſed; for within the walls are not only the emperor's houſe, but a little town, inhabited by the officers of the court, and a multitude of artificers employed and kept by the emperor; but the houſes of the courtiers and artificers are low and ill contrived. F. Artier, a French Jeſuit, who was indulged with a ſight of the palace and gardens, ſays, that the palace is more than three miles in circumference, and that the front of the building ſhines with gilding, paint, and varniſh, while the inſide is ſet off and furniſhed with every thing that is moſt beautiful and precious in China, the Indies, and Europe. The gardens of this palace are large tracts of ground, in which are raiſed, at proper diſtances artificial mountains, from 20 to 60 feet high, which form a number of ſmall vallies, plentifully watered by canals, which uniting, form lakes and meres. Beautiful and magnificent barks ſail on theſe pieces of water, and the banks are ornamented with ranges of buildings, not any two of which are ſaid to have any reſemblance to each other; which diverſity produces a very pleaſing effect. Every valley has its houſe of pleaſure, large enough to lodge one of our greateſt lords in Europe with all his retinue: many of theſe houſes are built with cedar, brought, at a vaſt expence, the diſtance of 500 leagues. Of theſe palaces, or houſes of pleaſure, there are more than 200 in this vaſt encloſure. In the middle of a lake, which is near half a league in diameter every way, is a rocky iſland, on which is built a palace, containing more than a hundred apartments. It has four fronts, and is a very elegant and magnificent ſtructure. The mountains and hills are covered with trees, particularly ſuch as produce beautiful and aromatic

flowers;

flowers; and the canals are edged with ruſtic pieces of rock, diſpoſed with ſuch art, as exactly to reſemble the wildneſs of nature.

The city of Peking is computed to contain two millions of inhabitants, though Nanking is ſaid to exceed it both in extent and population. But Canton is the greateſt port in China, and the only port that has been much frequented by Europeans. The city wall is above five miles in circumference, with very pleaſant walks around it. From the top of ſome adjacent hills, on which forts are built, you have a fine proſpect of the country. It is beautifully interſperſed with mountains, little hills, and vallies, all green; and theſe again pleaſantly diverſified with ſmall towns, villages, high towers, temples, the ſeats of mandarins and other great men, which are watered with delightful lakes, canals, and ſmall branches from the river Ta; on which are numberleſs boats and junks, ſailing different ways through the moſt fertile parts of the country. The city is entered by ſeveral iron gates, and within ſide of each there is a guard houſe. The ſtreets of Canton are very ſtraight, but generally narrow, paved with flag-ſtones. There are many pretty buildings in this city, great numbers of triumphal arches, and temples well ſtocked with images. The ſtreets of Canton are ſo crowded, that it is difficult to walk in them; yet a woman of any faſhion is ſeldom to be ſeen, unleſs by chance when coming out of her chair. There are great numbers of market places for fiſh, fleſh, poultry, vegetables, and all kinds of proviſions, which are ſold very cheap. There are many private walks about the ſkirts of the town, where thoſe of the better ſort have their houſes, which are very little frequented by Europeans, whoſe buſineſs lies chiefly in the trading part of the city, where there are only ſhops and warehouſes. Few of the Chineſe traders of any ſubſtance keep their families in houſes where they do buſineſs, but either in the city, in the more remote ſuburbs, or farther up in the country. They have all ſuch a regard to privacy, that no windows are made towards the ſtreets, but in ſhops and places of public buſineſs, nor do any of their windows look towards thoſe of their neighbours. The ſhops of thoſe that deal in ſilk are very neat, make a fine ſhow, and are all in one place; for tradeſmen, or dealers in one kind of goods, herd together in the ſame ſtreet. It is computed that there are in this city, and its ſuburbs, 1,200,000 people; and there are often 5000 trading veſſels lying before the city.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] China is ſo happily ſituated, and produces ſuch a variety of materials for manufactures, that it may be ſaid to be the native land of induſtry; but it an induſtry without taſte or elegance, though carried on with great art and neatneſs. They make paper of the bark of bamboo and other trees, as well as of cotton, but not comparable, for records or printing, to the European. Their ink for the uſe of drawing, is well known in England, and is ſaid to be made of oil and lampblack. I have already mentioned the antiquity of their printing, which they ſtill do by cutting their characters on blocks of wood. The manufacture of that earthen ware generally known by the name of China, was long a ſecret in Europe, and brought immenſe ſums to that country. The ancients knew and eſteemed it highly under the name of porcelain, but it was of much better fabric than the modern. Though the Chineſe affect to keep that manufacture ſtill a ſecret, yet it is well known that the principle material is a prepared pulverized earth, and that ſeveral European countries far exceed the Chineſe in manufacturing this commodity*. The Chineſe ſilks are gene-

* The Engliſh in particular have carried this branch to a high degree of perfection, as appears from the commiſſions which have been received of late from ſeveral princes of Europe; and we hope that a manufacture ſo generally uſeful, will meet with encouragement from every true patriot among ourſelves.

rally plain and flowered gauſes, and they are ſaid to have been originally fabricated in that country, where the art of rearing ſilk-worms was firſt diſcovered. They manufacture ſilks likewiſe of a more durable kind, and their cotton and other cloths, are famous for furniſhing a light warm wear.

Their trade, it is well known, is open to all the European nations, with whom they deal for ready money; for ſuch is the pride and avarice of the Chineſe, that they think no manufactures equal to their own. But it is certain, that ſince the diſcovery of the porcelain manufactures, and the vaſt improvements the Europeans have made in the weaving branches, the Chineſe commerce has been on the decline.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] This was a moſt inſtructive and entertaining article, before the conqueſt of China by the Tartars; for though their princes retain many fundamental maxims of the old Chineſe, they obliged the inhabitants to deviate from the ancient diſcipline in many reſpects. Perhaps their acquaintance with the Europeans may have contributed to their degeneracy. The original plan of the Chineſe government was patriarchal, almoſt in the ſtricteſt ſenſe of the word. Duty and obedience to the father of each family was recommended and enforced in the moſt rigorous manner; but, at the ſame time, the emperor was conſidered as the father of the whole. His mandarins, or great officers of ſtate, were looked upon as his ſubſtitutes, and the degrees of ſubmiſſion which were due from the inferior ranks to the ſuperior, were ſettled and obſerved with the moſt ſcrupulous preciſion, and in a manner that to us ſeems highly ridiculous. This ſimple claim of obedience required great addreſs and knowledge of human nature to render it effectual; and the Chineſe legiſlators, Confucius particularly, appear to have been men of wonderful abilities. They enveloped their dictates in a number of myſtical appearances, ſo as to ſtrike the people with awe and veneration. The mandarins had modes of ſpeaking and writing different from thoſe of other ſubjects, and the people were taught to believe that the princes partook of divinity; ſo that they were ſeldom ſeen, and more ſeldom approached.

Though this ſyſtem preſerved the public tranquillity for an incredible number of years, yet it had a fundamental defect, that often convulſed, and at laſt proved fatal to the ſtate, becauſe the ſame attention was not paid to the military as the civil duties. The Chineſe had paſſions like other men, and ſometimes a weak or wicked adminiſtration drove them into arms, and a revolution eaſily ſucceeded, which they juſtified by ſaying that their ſovereign had ceaſed to be their father. During thoſe commotions, one of the parties naturally invited their neighbours, the Tartars, to their aſſiſtance, and it was thus thoſe barbarians, who had great ſagacity, became acquainted with the weak ſide of their conſtitution, and they availed themſelves accordingly, by invading and conquering the empire, and conforming to the Chineſe inſtitutions.

Beſides the great doctrine of the patriarchal obedience, the Chineſe had ſumptuary laws, and regulations for the expences of all degrees of ſubjects, which were very uſeful in preſerving the public tranquillity, and preventing the effects of ambition. By their inſtitutions likewiſe, the mandarins might remonſtrate to the emperor, but in the moſt ſubmiſſive manner, upon the errors of his government, and when he was a virtuous prince, this freedom was often attended with the moſt ſalutary effects. No country in the world is ſo well provided with magiſtrates for the diſcharge of juſtice, both in civil and criminal matters, as China; but they are often ineffectual through want of public virtue in the execution. The emperor is ſtyled "*Holy Son of Heaven, Sole Governor of the Earth, Great Father of his People.*"

RELIGION.] This article is nearly connected with the preceding. Though the ancient Chineſe worſhipped idols, yet their philoſophers and legiſlators had juſter ſentiments of the Deity, and indulged the people in the worſhip of ſenſible objects, only to make them more ſubmiſſive to government. The Jeſuits made little oppoſition to this when they attempted to convert the Chineſe, and ſuffered their proſelytes to worſhip Tien, pretending that it was no other than the name of God. The truth is, Confucius, and the Chineſe legiſlators, introduced a moſt excellent ſyſtem of morals among the people, and endeavoured to ſupply the want of juſt ideas of a future ſtate, by preſcribing to them the worſhip of inferior deities. Their morality approximates to that of Chriſtianity; but as we know little of their religion, but through the Jeſuits, we cannot adopt for truth the numerous inſtances which they tell us of the conformity of the Chineſe with the Chriſtian religion. Thoſe fathers, it muſt be owned, were men of great abilities, and made a wonderful progreſs, above a century ago, in their converſions; but they miſtook the true character of the emperor, who was their patron; for he no ſooner found that they were in fact aſpiring to the civil direction of the government, than he expelled them, levelled their churches with the ground, and prohibited the exerciſe of their religion; ſince which time Chriſtianity has made no figure in China.

PUBLIC ROADS.] The ſecurity of travellers, and an eaſy mode of conveyance for paſſengers and merchandize of every kind, are objects to which particular attention ſeems to have been paid by adminiſtration in China. The manner in which the public roads are managed, greatly contributed to the former.

Theſe roads are in general very broad; they are paved in all the ſouthern provinces, and ſome of the northern. Valleys have been filled up, and paſſages have been cut through rocks and mountains, in order to make commodious highways, and to preſerve them as nearly as poſſible on a level. They are generally bordered with very lofty trees, and ſometimes with walls eight or ten feet in height, to prevent travellers from entering into the fields. Openings are left in them at certain intervals, which give a paſſage into croſs roads that conduct to different villages. On all the great roads covered ſeats are erected at proper diſtances, where the traveller may ſhelter himſelf from the inclemency of the winter, or the exceſſive heats of the ſummer.

There is no want of inns on the principal highways, and even on the croſs roads. The former are very ſpacious, but they are badly ſupplied with proviſions. People are even obliged to carry beds with them, or to ſleep on a plain mat. Government requires of thoſe who inhabit them, to give lodging only to thoſe who aſk and pay for it.

We meet with many turrets (ſays Mr. Bell) called poſt-houſes, erected at certain diſtances one from another, with a flag-ſtaff, on which is hoiſted the imperial pendant. Theſe places are guarded by ſoldiers, who run from one poſt to another with great ſpeed, carrying letters which concern the emperor. The turrets are in ſight of one another, and by ſignals they can convey intelligence of any remarkable event. By theſe means the court is informed in the ſpeedieſt manner of whatever diſturbance may happen in the moſt remote parts of the empire.

REVENUES.] Theſe are ſaid by ſome to amount to twenty, or, according to the abbé Groſier, to forty-one millions ſterling a year; but this cannot be meant in money, which does not at all abound in China. The taxes collected for the uſe of government in rice, and other commodities, are certainly very great, and may eaſily be impoſed, as an account of every man's family and ſubſtance is annually enrolled, and very poſſibly may amount to that ſum.

MILITARY AND MARINE STRENGTH.] China is at this time a far more powerful empire than it was before its conqueſt by the eaſtern Tartars, in 1644. This is owing to the conſummate policy of Chun-tchi, the firſt Tartarian emperor of China, who obliged his hereditary ſubjects to conform themſelves to the Chineſe manners and policy, and the Chineſe to wear the Tartar dreſs and arms. The two nations were thereby incorporated. The Chineſe were appointed to all the civil offices of the empire. The emperor made Peking the ſeat of his government, and the Tartars quietly ſubmitted to a change of their country and condition, which was ſo much in their favour.

This ſecurity, however, of the Chineſe from the Tartars, takes from them all military objects; the Tartar power alone being formidable to that empire. The only danger that threatens it at preſent, is the diſuſe of arms. The Chineſe land army is ſaid to conſiſt of more than ſeven hundred thouſand men; but in theſe are comprehended all who are employed in the collection of the revenue, and the preſervation of the canals, the great roads, and the public peace. The imperial guards amount to about 30,000. As to the marine force, it is compoſed chiefly of the junks we have already mentioned, and other ſmall ſhips, that trade coaſt-ways, or to the neighbouring countries, or to prevent ſudden deſcents.

A treatiſe on the military art, tranſlated from the Chineſe into the French Language, was publiſhed at Paris, in 1772, from which it appears that the Chineſe are well verſed in the theory of the art of war: but caution, and care, and circumſpection, are much recommended to their generals; and one of their maxims is, never to fight with enemies either more numerous or better armed than themſelves.

HISTORY.] The Chineſe pretend, as a nation, to an antiquity beyond all meaſure of credibility; and their annals have been carried beyond the period to which the Scripture chronology aſſigns the creation of the world. Poan Kou is ſaid by them to have been the firſt man, and the interval of time betwixt him and the death of their celebrated Confucius, which was in the year before Chriſt, 479, hath been reckoned from 276,000 to 96,961,740 years. But upon an accurate inveſtigation of this ſubject, it appears, that all the Chineſe hiſtorical relations of events prior to the reign of the emperor Yao, who lived 2057 years before Chriſt, are entirely fabulous, compoſed in modern times, unſupported by authentic records, and full of contradictions. It appears alſo, that the origin of the Chineſe empire cannot be placed higher than two or three generations before Yao. But even this is carrying the empire of China to a very high antiquity, and it is certain that the materials for the Chineſe hiſtory are extremely ample. The grand annals of the empire of China are comprehended in 668 volumes, and conſiſt of the pieces that have been compoſed by the tribunal or department of hiſtory, eſtabliſhed in China, for tranſmitting to poſterity the public events of the empire, and the lives, characters, and tranſactions of its ſovereigns. It is ſaid, that all the facts which concern the monarchy ſince its foundation, have been depoſited in this department, and from age to age have been arranged according to the order of times under the inſpection of government, and with all the precautions againſt illuſion or partiality that could be ſuggeſted. Theſe precautions have been carried ſo far, that the hiſtory of the reign of each imperial family has only been publiſhed after the extinction of that family, and was kept a profound ſecret during the dynaſty, that neither fear nor flattery might adulterate the truth. It is aſſerted, that many of the Chineſe hiſtorians expoſed themſelves to exile, and even to death, rather than diſguiſe the defects and vices of the ſovereign. But the emperor Chi-hoang-ti, at whoſe command the Great Wall was built, in the

year 213 before the Chriſtian æra, ordered all the hiſtorical books and records, which contained the fundamental laws and principles of the ancient government, to be burnt, that they might not be employed by the learned to oppoſe his authority, and the changes he propoſed to introduce into the monarchy. Four hundred literati were burnt, with their books; yet this barbarous edict had not its full effect; ſeveral books were concealed, and eſcaped the general ruin. After this period, ſtrict ſearch was made for the ancient books and records that yet remained; but though much induſtry was employed for this purpoſe, it appears that the authentic hiſtorical ſources of the Chineſe, for the times anterior to the year 200 before Chriſt, are very few, and that they are ſtill in ſmaller numbers for more remote periods. But notwithſtanding the depredations that have been made upon the Chineſe hiſtory, it is ſtill immenſely voluminous, and has been judged by ſome writers ſuperior to that of all other nations. Of the grand annals before mentioned, which amount to 668 volumes, a copy is preſerved in the library of the French king. A chronological abridgement of this great work, in one hundred volumes, was publiſhed in the 42d year of the reign of Kang-hi; that is, in the year 1703. This work is generally called Kam-mo, or the abridgement. From theſe materials the abbé Groſier propoſed to publiſh at Paris, in the French language, a General Hiſtory of China, in 12 volumes 4to. ſome of which have been printed, and a ſmaller work in 12 volumes 8vo by the late Father de Mailla, miſſionary at Peking, hath been juſt concluded and publiſhed.

But the limits to which our work is confined will not permit us to enlarge upon ſo copious a ſubject as that of the Chineſe hiſtory; and which, indeed, would be very unintereſting to the generality of European readers. A ſucceſſion of excellent princes, and a duration of domeſtic tranquillity, united legiſlation with philoſophy, and produced their Fo-hi, whoſe hiſtory is wrapped up in myſteries, their Li-Laokum, and above all their Confucius, at once the Solon and the Socrates of China. After all, the internal revolutions of the empire, though rare, produced the moſt dreadful effects, in proportion as its conſtitution was pacific, and they were attended with the moſt bloody exterminations in ſome provinces: ſo that though the Chineſe empire is hereditary, the imperial ſucceſſion was more than once broken into, and altered. Upwards of twenty dynaſties or different tribes and families of ſucceſſion, are enumerated in their annals.

Neither the great Zinghis Khan, nor Tamerlane, though they often defeated the Chineſe, could ſubdue their empire, and neither of them could keep the conqueſts they made there. Their celebrated wall proved but a feeble barrier againſt the arms of thoſe famous Tartars. After their invaſions were over, the Chineſe went to war with the Manchew Tartars, while an indolent worthleſs emperor, Tſong-tching, was upon the throne. In the mean while, a bold rebel, named Li-cong-tſe; in the province of Se-tchuen, dethroned the emperor, who hanged himſelf, as did moſt of his courtiers and women. Ou-ſan-quey, the Chineſe general, on the frontiers of Tartary, refuſed to recogniſe the uſurper, and made a peace with Tſongate, or Chun-tchi, the Manchew prince, who drove the uſurper from the throne, and took poſſeſſion of it himſelf, about the year 1644. The Tartar maintained himſelf in his authority, and, as has been already mentioned, wiſely incorporated his hereditary ſubjects with the Chineſe, ſo that in effect Tartary became an acquiſition to China. He was ſucceeded by a prince of great natural and acquired abilities, who was the patron of the Jeſuits, but knew how to check them when he found them intermeddling with the affairs of his government. About the year 1661, the Chineſe, under this Tartar family, drove the Dutch out of the iſland of Formoſa, which the latter had taken from the Portugueſe.

In the year 1771, all the Tartars which compoſed the nation of the Tourgouths, left the ſettlements which they had under the Ruſſian government on the banks of the Wolga, and the Iaick, at a ſmall diſtance from the Caſpian ſea, and in a vaſt body of fifty thouſand families, they paſſed through the country of the Haſacks; after a march of eight months, in which they ſurmounted innumerable difficulties and dangers, they arrived in the plains that lie on the frontier of Carapen, not far from the banks of the river Ily, and offered themſelves as ſubjects to Kien-long, emperor of China, who was then in the thirty-ſixth year of his reign. He received them graciouſly, furniſhed them with proviſions, clothes, and money, and allotted to each family a portion of land for agriculture and paſturage. The year following there was a ſecond emigration of about thirty thouſand other Tartar families, who alſo quitted the ſettlements which they enjoyed under the Ruſſian government, and ſubmitted to the Chineſe ſceptre. The emperor cauſed the hiſtory of theſe emigrations to be engraven upon ſtone, in four different languages.

INDIA IN GENERAL.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.] THIS vaſt country is ſituated between the 66th and 109th degrees of Eaſt longitude, and between 1 and 40 of North latitude. It is bounded on the North, by the countries of Uſbec Tartary and Thibet; on the South, by the Indian Ocean; on the Eaſt, by China and the Chineſe Sea; and on the Weſt, by Perſia and the Indian Sea.

DIVISIONS.] I ſhall divide, as others have done, India at large into three greater parts: firſt, the Peninſula of India beyond the Ganges, called the Farther Peninſula; ſecondly, the main land, or the Mogul's empire; thirdly, the Peninſula within or on this ſide the Ganges; all of them vaſt, populous, and extended empires. But it is neceſſary, in order to ſave many repititions, to premiſe an account of ſome particulars that are in common to thoſe numerous nations, which ſhall be extracted from the moſt enlightend of our modern writers who have viſited the country in the ſervice of the Eaſt India company.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, RELIGION, AND GOVERNMENT.] Mr. Orme, an excellent and an authentic hiſtorian, comprehends the two latter diviſions under the title of Indoſtan. The Mahometans (ſays he) who are called Moors, of Indoſtan, are computed to be about ten millions, and the Indians about a hundred millions. Above half the empire is ſubject to rajahs, or kings, who derive their deſcent from the old princes of India, and exerciſe all rights of ſovereignty, only paying a tribute to the great mogul, and obſerving the treaties by which their anceſtors recogniſed his ſuperiority. In other reſpects, the government of Indoſtan is full of wiſe checks upon the overgrowing greatneſs of any ſubject; but (as all precautions of that kind depend upon the adminiſtration) the indolence and barbarity of the moguls or emperors, and their great viceroys, have rendered them fruitleſs.

The original inhabitants of India are called Gentoos; or, as others call them, Hindoos, and the country Hindooſtan. They pretend that Brumma, who was their legiſlator both in politics and religion, was inferior only to God, and that he exiſted many thouſand years before our account of the creation. This Brumma, probably, was ſome great and good genius, whoſe beneficence, like that of the pagan legiſlators, led his people and

their

Platte XX.

66 69 72 75 78 81

33 30 27 24 21 18 15 12 9 6

Kuttner Mt.
Cabul
Latac
Nagar
Ashenagar
Cashmere
CABUL
Candahar
Baroor
Attock
Jummoo
Rookhage
Jamad Ft.
LAHORE
Kordar
Fortress
Lahore
Chatoor
Dobalpour
Moultan
Adjodin
Sirhind
DELHI
Semanahs
MOULTAN
Hissar
Kanoon
Subathu
Bereilly
Bickaner
Dig
Colpauly
AGRA
Dhoolpour
Agimere
AGIMERE
Joodpour
Gwalior
Calpy
Arruh
Sirohy
Cheitore
Narwa
Jaisi
Raat
Jalour
SINDY
Buddalano
Oudipour
Sheergur
MALWA
Mahur
Monz
Tatta
Asamilly
Serongo
Mouths of the Indus
Supposed courses of the Ganges
CUTCH
Boogeboge
Tabej
Dungerpour
Ougein
Bilsa
Ameda bad
Godra
Cambay
Broodera
Mundu
Nerbuddah R.
Jigat Pt.
Muty
Noonagur
Hindia
GUZERAT
Gogo
Malloy
Burrawney
Ramtek
Jumagar
Chitpour
Nadere
Ellichpour
Puttan
Surat
CANDEISH
Notchengong
Gulf of Cambay
Damaun
Jaffeerabad
BERAR
Dia I.
Bahbelgong
DOWLATABAD
Chanda
Aurungabad
Nandere
Salset I.
Bombay
Ahmednagur
Godavery R.
Benapoor
Elwandal
Poonah
Barenda
Boreya R.
Chaoul
Sattara
Sacker
Beder
Warangole
Daboul
Galberga
Zygur
Tagganv
Firozpur
Ellore
Gheriah
Vingorla
Mundapoor
Ryechor
Pettapoly
Goa
Adonee
Bisnagly
Udegherry
Carwar Bay & T.
Ryadroog
Nellore
Batecola
Chandelroog
Cuddapah
Barcelore
Bidanoor
Serar
Gorumcondah
MYSORE
Chitoor
MALABAR
Mangalore
Bangalore
Ambor
Seringapatam
Arcot
Tranomalle
Metelar
Myzore
Ryacotta
Decurapour
Cualtaon
Demicotta
Trivadoor
Telliche
Wairiore
Ameny
Coimbatoor
Nagul
Perinapax
Germe
Banjore
LACADIVE
Panicany
Aquadaon
Tschinopply
Laconda I.
Cranganore
Dindigul
Kelly
ISLANDS
Caroly
Madura
Schulpax I.
Calpeny
Cochin
Ramanad
Coilpetta
Gulf of Manara
Anjengo
Travancore
Tinevelly
Maliooy
C. Comorin
Calpenteen
Negombo
CEYLON
Columbo
Calitoor
Iangale
British Statute Miles.
50 100 200 300
MALDIVE ISLANDS
Point de Galle

66 Longitude 69 East from 72 London. 75 78 81

Platte XX.

HINDOSTAN, or INDIA. from the best AUTHORITIES

Remarks.

Territories ceded to the British by Tippoo Sultan according to the Partition Treaty made at Seringapatam 1792 1
Do. ..... to the Nizam 2
Do. ..... to the Paishwah 3

British Statute Miles. 50 100 200 300

Longitude 66 69 72 75 78 81 84 87 90 93 96 99 East from London.

their poſterity to pay him divine honours. The Brahmins (for ſo the Gentoo prieſts are called) pretend, that he bequeathed to them a book called the Vidam, containing his doctrines and inſtitutions; and that though the original is loſt, they are ſtill poſſeſſed of a commentary upon it, called the Shahſtah, which is wrote in the Shanſcrite, now a dead language, and known only to the Brahmins, who ſtudy it.

The foundation of Brumma's doctrine conſiſted in the belief of a Supreme Being, who has created a regular gradation of beings, ſome ſuperior, and ſome inferior to man; and in the immortality of the ſoul, and a future ſtate of rewards and puniſhments, which is to conſiſt of a tranſmigration into different bodies, according to the lives they have led in their pre-exiſtent ſtate. From this it appears more than probable, that the Pythagorean metempſychoſis took its riſe in India. The neceſſity of inculcating this ſublime, but otherwiſe complicated doctrine, into the lower ranks, induced the Brahmins, who are by no means unanimous in their doctrines, to have recourſe to ſenſible repreſentations of the Deity and his attributes; ſo that the original doctrines of Brumma have degenerated to rank ridiculous idolatry, in the worſhip of different animals, and various images, and of the moſt hideous figures, either delineated or carved.

The Hindoos have, from time immemorial, been divided into four great tribes. The firſt and moſt noble tribe, are the Brahmins, who alone can officiate in the prieſthood, like the Levites among the Jews. They are not, however, excluded from government, trade, or agriculture, though they are ſtrictly prohibited from all menial offices, by their laws. The ſecond in order is the Sittri tribe, who, according to their original inſtitution ought to be all military men; but they frequently follow other profeſſions. The third is the tribe of Beiſe, who are chiefly merchants, bankers, and banias or ſhopkeepers. The fourth tribe is that of Sudder, who ought to be menial ſervants; and they are incapable of raiſing themſelves to any ſuperior rank. If any one of them ſhould be excommunicated from any of the four tribes, he and his poſterity are for ever ſhut out from the ſociety of every body in the nation, excepting that of the Harri caſt, who are held in utter deteſtation by all the other tribes, and are employed only in the meaneſt and vileſt offices. This circumſtance renders excommunication ſo dreadful, that any Hindoo will ſuffer the torture, and even death itſelf, rather than deviate from one article of his faith.

Beſides this diviſion into tribes, the Gentoos are alſo ſubdivided into caſts of ſmall claſſes and tribes; and it has been computed that there are eighty-four of theſe caſts, though ſome have ſuppoſed there was a greater number. The order of pre-eminence of all the caſts, in a particular city or province, is generally indiſputably decided. The Indian of an inferior, would think himſelf honoured by adopting the cuſtoms of a ſuperior caſt: but this would give battle ſooner than not vindicate its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a ſuperior caſt with reſpect, but the ſuperior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior caſt. Their marriages are circumſcribed by the ſame barriers as the reſt of their intercourſes; and hence, beſides the national phyſiognomy, the members of each caſt preſerve an air of ſtill greater reſemblance to one another. There are ſome caſts remarkable for their beauty, and others as remarked for their uglineſs.

The members of each caſt, ſays Dr. Robertſon, adhere invariably to the profeſſion of their forefathers. From generation to generation, the ſame families have followed, and will always continue follow, one uniform line of life. To this may be aſcribed that high degree of perfection

conſpicuous

conſpicuous in many of the Indian manufactures; and though veneratio for the practices of their anceſtors may check the ſpirit of invention, ye by adhering to theſe, they acquire ſuch an expertneſs and delicacy of hand that Europeans, with all the advantages of ſuperior ſcience, and the aid o more complete inſtruments, have never been able to equal the exquiſit execution of their workmanſhip. While this high improvement of thei more curious manufactures excited the admiration, and attracted the com. merce of other nations, the ſeparation of profeſſions in India, and the early diſtribution of the people into claſſes, attached to particular kinds of labour, ſecured ſuch abundance of the more common and uſeful commo. dities, as not only ſupplied their own wants, but miniſtered to thoſe of the countries around them.

To this early diviſion of the people into caſts, we muſt likewiſe aſcribe a ſtriking peculiarity in the ſtate of India; the permanence of its inſtitutions, and the immutability in the manners of its inhabitants. What now is in India, always was there, and is ſtill likely to continue: neither the ferocious violence and illiberal fanaticiſm of its Mahomedan conquerors, nor the power of its European maſters, have effected any conſiderable alteration. The ſame diſtinctions of condition take place, the ſame arrangements in civil and domeſtic ſociety remain, the ſame maxims of religion are held in veneration, and the ſame ſciences and arts are cultivated. Hence, in all ages, the trade with India has been the ſame; gold and ſilver have uniformly been carried thither in order to purchaſe the ſame commodities with which it now ſupplies all nations; and from the age of Pliny to the preſent times, it has always been conſidered and execrated as a gulf which ſwallows up the wealth of every other country, that flows inceſſantly towards it, and from which it never returns *.

All theſe caſts acknowledge the Brahmins for their prieſts, and from them derive their belief of their tranſmigration; which leads many of them to afflict themſelves even at the death of a fly, although occaſioned by inadvertence. But the greater number of caſts are leſs ſcrupulous, and eat, although very ſparingly, both of fiſh and fleſh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice and vegetables, dreſſed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter ſpices, which grow almoſt ſpontaneouſly in their gardens. They eſteem milk the pureſt of foods, becauſe they think it partakes of ſome of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and becauſe they eſteem the cow itſelf almoſt like a divinity.

Their manners are gentle; their happineſs conſiſts in the ſolaces of a domeſtic life; and they are taught by their religion, that matrimony is an indiſpenſable duty in every man, who does not entirely ſeparate himſelf from the world from a principle of devotion. Their religion alſo permits them to have ſeveral wives; but they ſeldom have more than one; and it has been obſerved, that their wives are diſtinguiſhed by a decency of demeanour, a ſolicitude in their families, and a fidelity to their vows, which might do honour to human nature in the moſt civilized countries. The amuſements of the Hindoos conſiſt in going to their pagodas, in aſſiſting at religious ſhows, and in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies preſcribed to them by the Brahmins. Their religion forbids them to quit their own ſhores †; nor do they want any thing from abroad. They might, therefore, have

* Dr. Robertſon's Hiſtorical Diſquiſition concerning India, Appendix, p. 261, 262.

† The Gentoos are perſuaded, that the waters of the three great rivers, Ganges, Kiſtna, and Indus, have the ſacred virtue of purifying thoſe who bathe in them from all pollutions and ſins. This religious idea ſeems to be founded on a principle of policy, and intended to reſtrain the natives from migrating into diſtant countries: for

have lived in much tranquillity and happineſs, if others had looked on them with the ſame indifference with which they regard the reſt of the world.

The ſoldiers are commonly called Rajah-poots, or perſons deſcended from Rajahs, and reſide chiefly in the northern provinces, and are generally more fair-complexioned than the people of the ſouthern provinces, who are quite black. Theſe rajah-poots are a robuſt, brave, faithful people, and enter into the ſervice of thoſe who will pay them; but when their leader falls in battle, they think that their engagements to him are finiſhed, and they run off the field without any ſtain upon their reputation.

The cuſtom of women burning themſelves, upon the death of their huſbands, ſtill continues to be practiſed, though much leſs frequently than formerly. The Gentoos are as careful of the cultivation of their lands, and their public works and conveniences, as the Chineſe; and there ſcarcely is an inſtance of a robbery in all Indoſtan, though the diamond merchants travel without defenſive weapons.

RELIGION.] The inſtitutions of religion, publicly eſtabliſhed in all the extenſive countries ſtretching from the banks of the Indus to Cape Comorin, preſent to view an aſpect nearly ſimilar. They form a regular and complete ſyſtem of ſuperſtition, ſtrengthened and upheld by every thing which can excite the reverence and ſecure the attachment of the people. The temples conſecrated to their deities, are magnificent, and adorned not only with rich offerings, but with the moſt exquiſite works in painting and ſculpture, which the artiſts higheſt in eſtimation among them were capable of executing. The rites and ceremonies of their worſhip are pompous and ſplendid, and the performance of them not only mingles in all the tranſactions of common life, but conſtitutes an eſſential part of them. The Brahmins, who, as miniſters of religion, preſide in all its functions, are elevated above every other order of men, by an origin deemed not only more noble, but acknowledged to be ſacred. They have eſtabliſhed among themſelves a regular hierarchy and gradation of ranks, which, by ſecuring ſubordination in their own order, adds weight to their authority, and gives them a more abſolute dominion in the minds of the people. This dominion they ſupport by the command of the immenſe revenues with which the liberality of princes, and the zeal of pilgrims and devotees, have enriched their pagodas.

It is far from my intention to enter into any minute detail with reſpect to this vaſt and complicated ſyſtem of ſuperſtition. An attempt to enumerate the multitude of deities which are the objects of adoration in India; to deſcribe the ſplendour of worſhip in their pagodas, and the immenſe varieties of their rites and ceremonies; to recount the various attributes and functions which the craft of prieſts, or the credulity of the people, have aſcribed to their divinities; eſpecially if I were to accompany all this with a review of the numerous and often fanciful ſpeculations and theories of learned men on this ſubject, would too much ſwell this part of our work.

for it is remarkable, that the ſacred rivers are ſo ſituated, that there is not any part of India where the inhabitants may not have an opportunity of waſhing away their ſins. The Ganges, which riſes in the mountains of Thibet, with its different branches, runs through the kingdoms of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, and the upper provinces of Oude, Rohilcunde, Agra, Delhi, and Lahore. The Kiſtna divides the Carnatic from Golconda, and runs through the Viſiapore into the interior parts of the Deccan. And the Indus, bounding the Guzurat provinces, ſeparates Indoſtan from the dominions of Perſia.

The

The temples, or pagodas of the Gentoos are ſtupendous but diſguiſful ſtone buildings, erected in every capital, and under the direction of the Brahmins. To this, however, there are ſome exceptions; for in proportion (ſays Dr. Robertſon, the philoſophical hiſtorian of India) to the progreſs of the different countries of India in opulence and refinement, the ſtructure of their temples gradually improved. From plain buildings they became highly ornamented fabrics, and, both by their extent and magnificence, are monuments of the power and taſte of the people by whom they were erected. In this highly finiſhed ſtyle there are pagodas of great antiquity in different parts of Indoſtan, particularly in the ſouthern provinces, which were not expoſed to the deſtructive violence of Mahomedan zeal. In order to aſſiſt my readers in forming a proper idea of theſe buildings, I ſhall briefly deſcribe two, of which we have the moſt accurate accounts. The entry to the pagoda of Chillambrum, near Porto Novo, on the Coromandel coaſt, held in high veneration on account of its antiquity, is by a ſtately gate under a pyramid, a hundred and twenty-two feet in height, built with large ſtones above forty feet long, and more than five feet ſquare, and all covered with plates of copper, adorned with an immenſe variety of figures, neatly executed. The whole ſtructure extends one thouſand, three hundred, and thirty-two feet in one direction, and nine hundred and thirty-ſix in another. Some of the ornamental parts are finiſhed with an elegance entitled to the admiration of the moſt ingenious artiſts.

The pagoda of Seringham, ſuperior in ſanctity to that of Chillambrum, ſurpaſſes it as much in grandeur; and, fortunately, I can convey a more perfect idea of it, by adopting the words of an elegant and accurate hiſtorian. "This pagoda is ſituated about a mile from the weſtern extremity of the iſland of Seringham, formed by the diviſion of the great river Caveri into two channels. "It is compoſed of ſeven ſquare incloſures, one within the other, the walls of which are twenty-five feet high, and four thick. Theſe incloſures are three hundred and fifty feet diſtant from one another, and each has four large gates with a ſquare tower; which are placed one in the middle of each ſide of the incloſures, and oppoſite to the four cardinal points. The outward wall is near four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the ſouth is ornamented with pillars, ſeveral of which are ſingle ſtones thirty-three feet long, and nearly five in diameter; and thoſe which form the roof are ſtill larger: in the inmoſt incloſures are the chapels. Here, as in all the other great pagodas of India, the Brahmins live in a ſubordination which knows no reſiſtance, and ſlumber in a voluptuouſneſs which knows no wants*."

If the Brahmins are maſters of any uncommon art or ſcience, they frequently turn it to the purpoſes of profit from their ignorant votaries. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that they knew how to calculate eclipſes; and that judicial aſtrology is ſo prevalent among them, that half the year is taken up with unlucky days; the head aſtrologer being always conſulted in their councils. The Mahometans likewiſe encourage thoſe ſuperſtitions, and look upon all the fruits of the Gentoo induſtry as belonging to themſelves. Though the Gentoos are entirely paſſive under all their oppreſſions, and, by their ſtate of exiſtence, the practice of their religion, and the ſcantineſs of their food, have nothing of that reſentment in their nature that animates the reſt of mankind; yet they are ſuſceptible of avarice, and ſometimes bury their money, and rather than diſcover it, put themſelves to death by poiſon or otherwiſe. This practice, which it ſeems is not uncommon, accounts for the vaſt ſcarcity of ſilver that, till of late, prevailed in Indoſtan.

* Orme's Hiſt. of Milit. Tranſact. of Indoſtan, vol. i. p. 178.

The

The reaſons above-mentioned account likewiſe for their being leſs under the influence of their paſſions than the inhabitants of other countries. The perpetual uſe of rice, their chief food, gives them but little nouriſhment; and their marrying early, the males before fourteen, and their women at ten or eleven years of age, keeps them low and feeble in their perſons. A man is in the decline of life at thirty, and the beauty of their women is on decay at eighteen: at twenty-five they have all the marks of old age. We are, therefore, not to wonder at their being ſoon ſtrangers to all perſonal exertion and vigour of mind; and it is with them a frequent ſaying, that it is better to ſit than to walk, to lie down than to ſit, to ſleep than to wake, and death is the beſt of all.

The Mahometans, who, in Indoſtan, are called Moors, are of Perſian, Turkiſh, Arabic, and other extractions. They early began, in the reigns of the caliphs of Bagdad, to invade Indoſtan. They penetrated as far as Delhi, which they made their capital. They ſettled colonies in ſeveral places, whoſe deſcendants are called Tytans; but their empire was overthrown by Tamerlane, who founded the Mogul government, which ſtill ſubſiſts. Thoſe princes being ſtrict Mahometans, received under their protection all that profeſſed the ſame religion, and who being a brave active people, counterbalanced the numbers of the natives. They are ſaid to have introduced the diviſion of provinces, over which they appointed ſoubahs; and thoſe provinces, each of which might be ſtyled an empire, were ſubdivided into nabobſhips; each nabob being immediately accountable to his ſoubah, who, in proceſs of time, became almoſt independent on the emperor, or, as he is called, the Great Mogul, upon their paying him an annual tribute. The vaſt reſort of Perſian and Tartar tribes has likewiſe ſtrengthened the Mahometan government: but it is obſervable, that in two or three generations, the progeny of all thoſe adventurers, who brought nothing with them but their horſes and their ſwords, degenerated into all eaſtern indolence and ſenſuality.

Of all thoſe tribes, the Mahrattas at preſent make the greateſt figure. They are a kind of mercenaries, who live on the mountains between Indoſtan and Perſia. They commonly ſerve on horſeback, and, when well commanded, they have been known to give law even to the court of Delhi. Though they are originally Gentoos, yet they are of bold active ſpirits, and pay no great reſpect to the principles of their religion. Mr. Scrafton ſays, that the Mahometans or Moors are of ſo deteſtable a character, that he never knew above two or three exceptions, and thoſe were among the Tartar and Perſian officers of the army. They are void, we are told, of every principle, even of their own religion; and if they have a virtue, it is an appearance of hoſpitality, but it is an appearance only; for while they are drinking with, and embracing a friend, they will ſtab him to the heart. But it is probable, that theſe repreſentations of their moral depravity are carried beyond the bounds of truth.

The people of Indoſtan are governed by no written laws; nor is there a lawyer in their whole empire; and their courts of juſtice are directed by precedents. The Mahometan inſtitutes prevail only in their great towns and their neighbourhood. The empire is hereditary, and the emperor is heir only to his own officers. All lands go in the hereditary line, and continue in that ſtate even down to the ſubtenants, while the lord can pay his taxes, and the latter their rent, both which are immutably fixed in the public books of each diſtrict. The imperial demeſne lands are thoſe of the great rajah families, which fell to Tamerlane and his ſucceſſors. Certain portions of them are called jaghire lands, and are beſtowed by the crown on the great lords or omrahs, and, upon their death revert to the emperor; but the rights of the ſubtenants, even of thoſe lands, are indefeaſible.

Such

Such are the outlines of the government by which this great empire long ſubſiſted, without almoſt the ſemblance of virtue among its great officers, either civil or military. It was ſhaken, however, after the invaſion of Mahomet Shah, by Kouli Khan, which was attended by ſo great a diminution of the Imperial authority, that the ſoubahs and nabobs became abſolute in their own governments. Though they could not alter the fundamental laws of property, yet they invented new taxes, which beggared the people, to pay their armies and ſupport their power; ſo that many of the people, a few years ago, after being unmercifully plundered by collectors and taxmaſters, were left to periſh through want. To ſum up the miſery of the inhabitants, thoſe ſoubahs and nabobs, and other Mahometan governors, employ the Gentoos themſelves, and ſome even of the Brahmins, as the miniſters of their rapacioufneſs and cruelties. Upon the whole, ever ſince the invaſion of Kouli Khan, Indoſtan, from being a well-regulated government, is become a ſcene of mere anarchy or ſtratocracy; every great man protects himſelf in his tyranny by his ſoldiers, whoſe pay far exceeds the natural riches of his government. As private aſſaſſinations, and other murders are here committed with impunity, the people who know they can be in no worſe eſtate, concern themſelves very little in the revolutions of government. To the above cauſes are owing the late ſucceſſes of the Engliſh in Indoſtan. The reader, from this repreſentation, may perceive, that all the Engliſh have acquired, in point of territory, has been gained from uſurpers and robbers; and their poſſeſſion of it being guarranteed by the preſent lawful emperor, is ſaid to be founded upon the laws and conſtitutions of that country. We are, however, ſorry to be obliged to remark, that the conduct of many of the ſervants of the Eaſt-India Company towards the natives, and not properly puniſhed or checked by the directors of the Britiſh legiſlature, has, in too many inſtances been highly diſhonourable to the Engliſh name, and totaliy inconſiſtent with that humanity which was formerly our national characteriſtic.

It may be here proper juſt to obſerve, that the complexion of the Gentoos is black, their hair long, and the features of both ſexes regular. At court, however, the great families are ambitious of intermarrying with Perſians and Tartars, on account of the fairneſs of their complexion, reſembling that of their conqueror Tamerlane, and his great generals.

The PENINSULA of INDIA beyond the GANGES, called the FARTHER PENINSULA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	2000	between	1 and 30 north latitude.	741,500
Breadth	1000		92 and 109 eaſt longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] THIS peninſula is bounded by Thibet and China, on the North; by China and the Chineſe Sea, on the Eaſt; by the ſame ſea and the Straits of Malacca, on the South; and by the Bay of Bengal and the Hither India, on the Weſt. The ſpace between Bengal and China, is now called the province of Mecklus, and other diſtricts ſubject to the king of Ava, or Burmah.

Grand

G. divif.	Subdivif.	Chief Towns.	Sq.M.
On the north-weft,	Acham, Aa, Aracan	Chamdara, Ava, Aracan	180,000
On the fouth-weft,	Pegu, Martaban	Pegu, E. long. 97. N. lat. 17-30; Martaban	50,000
	Siam	Siam, E. long. 100-55. N. lat. 14-18	170,000
	Malacca	Malacca, E. long. 101. N. lat. 2-12	48,000
On the north-eaft,	Tonquin	Cachao, or Keccio, E. long. 105. N. lat. 21-30	112,000
	Laos	Lanchang	59,400
On the fouth-eaft,	C. China	Thoanoa	61,900
	Cambod.	Cambodia	60,200
	Chiampa	Padram	

NAME.] The name of India is taken from the river Indus, which of all others was the beſt known to the Perſians. The whole of this peninſula was unknown to the ancients, and is partly ſo to the moderns.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Authors differ concerning the air of this country, ſome preferring that of the ſouthern, and ſome that of the northern parts. It is generally agreed, that the air of the former is hot and dry, but in ſome places moiſt, and conſequently unhealthy. The climate is ſubject to hurricanes, lightnings, and inundations, ſo that the people build their houſes upon high pillars to defend them from floods; and they have no other idea of ſeaſons, but wet and dry. Eaſterly and weſterly *monſoons* (which is an Indian word) prevail in this country.

MOUNTAINS.] Theſe run from North to South almoſt the whole length of the country; but the lands near the ſea are low, and annually overflowed in the rainy ſeaſon.

RIVERS.] The chief are Sampoo or Burrampooter, Domea, Mecon, Menan, and Ava, or the great river *Non Kian*.

Of theſe the Burrampooter, called Sampoo in the upper part of its courſe, is by far the moſt conſiderable. This rival ſiſter of the Ganges iſſues from the ſame mountains that give birth to that river; but taking a contrary, i. e. an eaſterly direction, through Thibet, winds to the ſouth-weſt through Aſſam; and entering Indoſtan, flows to the ſouth, aſſumes the name of Megna, and joins the weſtern branch of the Ganges with an immenſe body of water, equal, if not ſuperior, to the Ganges itſelf.

Theſe two noble rivers, when they approach the ſea, divide into ſuch a multitude of channels, and receive ſuch a number of navigable ſtreams, that a tract of country, nearly equal to Great Britain in extent, enjoys by their means the fineſt inland navigation that can be conceived, and which gives conſtant employment to 30,000 boatmen. Theſe channels are ſo numerous that very few places in this tract are even in the dry ſeaſon 25 miles from a navigable ſtream; and in the ſeaſon of the periodical rains, they overflow their banks to the depth of 30 feet, and form an inundation that fertilizes the ſoil to the extent of more than 100 miles *.

BAYS AND STRAITS.] The bays of Bengal, Siam, and Cochin-China. The ſtraits of Malacca and Sincapora. The promontories of Siam, Romana, and Banſac.

SOIL AND PRODUCT OF THE DIFFERENT NATIONS.] The ſoil of this peninſula is fruitful in general, and produces all the delightful fruits that are found in other countries contiguous to the Ganges, as well as

* Major Rennel's Memoir, p. 255.

roots

roots and vegetables; alſo ſaltpetre, and the beſt teek timber, or Indian oak, which for ſhip-building in warm climates is ſuperior to any European oak. It abounds likewiſe in ſilks, elephants, and quadrupeds both domeſtic and wild, that are common in the ſouthern kingdoms of Aſia. The natives drive a great trade in gold, diamonds, rubies, topazes, amethyſts, and other precious ſtones. Tonquin produces little or no corn or wine, but is the moſt healthful country of all the peninſula. In ſome places, eſpecially towards the north, the inhabitants have ſwellings in their throats, ſaid to be owing to the badneſs of their water.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.] The Tonquineſe are excellent mechanics, and fair traders; but greatly oppreſſed by their king and great lords. His majeſty engroſſes the trade, and his factors ſell by retail to the Dutch and other nations. The Tonquineſe are fond of lacker houſes, which are unwholeſome and poiſonous. The people in the ſouth are a ſavage race, and go almoſt naked, with large ſilver and gold ear-rings, and coral, amber, or ſhell bracelets. In Tonquin and Cochin-China, the two ſexes are ſcarcely diſtinguiſhable by their dreſs, which reſembles that of the Perſians. The people of quality are fond of Engliſh broad-cloth, red or green; and others wear a dark coloured cotton cloth. In Azem, which is thought one of the beſt countries in Aſia, the inhabitants prefer dogs-fleſh to all other animal food. The people of that kingdom pay no taxes, becauſe the king is ſole proprietor of all the gold and ſilver and other metals found in his kingdom. They live, however, eaſily and comfortably. Almoſt every houſekeeper has an elephant for the conveniency of his wives and women; polygamy being practiſed all over India.

It is unqueſtionable, that thoſe Indians, as well as the Chineſe, had the uſe of gunpowder before it was known in Europe; and the invention is generally aſcribed to the Azimeſe. The inhabitants of the ſouthern diviſion of this peninſula go under the name of Malayans, from the neighbouring country of Malacca.

Though the religious ſuperſtitions that prevail in this peninſula are extremely groſs, yet the people believe in a future ſtate; and when their kings are interred, a number of animals are buried with them, and ſuch veſſels of gold and ſilver as they think can be of uſe to them in their future life. The people in this peninſula are commonly very fond of ſhow, and often make an appearance beyond their circumſtances. They are delicate in no part of their dreſs but in their hair, which they buckle up in a very agreeable manner. In their food they are lotheſome; for beſides dogs, they eat rats, mice, ſerpents, and ſtinking fiſh. The people of Aracan are equally indelicate in their amours, for they hire Dutch and other foreigners to conſummate the nuptials with their virgins, and value their women moſt when in a ſtate of pregnancy. Their treatment of the ſick is ridiculous, beyond belief; and in many places, when a patient is judged to be incurable, he is expoſed on the bank of ſome river, where he is either drowned, or devoured by birds or beaſts of prey.

The diverſions common in this country are fiſhing and hunting, the celebrating of feſtivals, and acting comedies, by torch-light, from evening to morning.

LANGUAGE] The language of the court of Delhi is Perſian, but in this peninſula it is chiefly Malayan, as we have already obſerved, interſperſed with other dialects.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Brahmins, who are the tribe of the prieſthood, deſcend from thoſe Brachmans who are mentioned to us with ſo much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either

as

as philoſophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their anceſtors; as prieſts, their religious doctrines are ſtill implicity followed by the whole nation; and as preceptors, they are the ſource of all the knowledge which exiſts in Indoſtan. But the utmoſt ſtretch of their mathematical knowledge ſeems to be the calculation of eclipſes. They have a good idea of logic; but it does not appear that they have any treatiſes on rhetoric; their ideas of muſic, if we may judge from their practice, are barbarous; and in medicine, they derive no aſſiſtance from the knowledge of anatomy, ſince diſſections are repugnant to their religion.

The poetry of the Aſiatics is too turgid, and full of conceits, and the diction of their hiſtorians very diffuſe and verboſe: but though the manner of eaſtern compoſitions differs from the correct taſte of Europe, there are many things in the writings of Aſiatic authors worthy the attention of literary men. Mr. Dow obſerves, that in the Shanſcrita, or learned language of the Brahmins, which is the grand repoſitory of the religion, philoſophy, and hiſtory of the Hindoos, there are in particular many hundred volumes in proſe, which treat of the ancient Indians and their hiſtory. The ſame writer alſo remarks, that the Shanſcrita records contain accounts of the affairs of the Weſtern Aſia very different from what any tribe of the Arabians have tranſmitted to poſterity; and that it is more than probable, that, upon examination, the former will appear to bear the marks of more authenticity, and of greater antiquity, than the latter. The Arabian writers have been generally ſo much prejudiced againſt the Hindoos, that their accounts of them are by no means to be implicity relied on.

Mr. Dow obſerves, that the ſmall progreſs, which correctneſs and elegance of ſentiment and diction have made in the Eaſt, did not proceed from a want of encouragement to literature. On the contrary, it appears, that no princes in the world patronized men of letters with more generoſity and reſpect, than the Mahometan emperors of Indoſtan. A literary genius was not only the certain means to acquire a degree of wealth which muſt aſtoniſh Europeans, but an infallible road for riſing to the firſt offices of the ſtate. The character of the learned was at the ſame time ſo ſacred, that tyrants, who made a paſtime of embruing their hands in the blood of their other ſubjects, not only abſtained from offering violence to men of genius, but ſtood in fear of their pens.

MANUFACTURE AND COMMERCE.] Theſe vary in the different countries of this peninſula; but the chief branches have been already mentioned. The inhabitants, in ſome parts, are obliged to manufacture their ſalt out of aſhes. In all handicraft trades that they underſtand, the people are more induſtrious, and better workmen, than moſt of the Europeans: and in weaving, ſewing, embroidering, and ſome other manufactures, it is ſaid, that the Indians do as much work with their feet as their hands. Their painting, though they are ignorant of drawing, is amazingly vivid in its colours. The fineneſs of their linen, and their fillagree work in gold and ſilver, are beyond any thing of thoſe kinds to be found in other parts of the world. The commerce of India, in ſhort, is courted by all trading nations in the world, and probably has been ſo from the earlieſt ages: it was not unknown even in Soloman's time; and the Greeks and Romans drew from thence their higheſt materials of luxury. The greateſt ſhare of it, through events foreign to this part of our work, is now centered in England, though that of the Dutch is ſtill very conſiderable; that of the French has for ſome time declined; nor is that of the Swedes and Danes of much importance.

CONSTITUTION, GOVERNMENT, RARITIES, AND CITIES. } This article is ſo extenſive, that it requires a ſlight review of the kingdoms that form this peninſula. In Azem, I have already obſerved the king is proprietor of all the gold and ſilver; he pays little or nothing to the Great Mogul; his capital is Ghergong, or Kirganu. We know little or nothing of the kingdom of Tipra, but that it was anciently ſubject to the kings of Aracan; and that they ſend to the Chineſe gold and ſilk, for which they receive ſilver in return. Aracan lies to the ſouth of Tipra, and is governed by twelve princes, ſubject to the chief king, who reſides in his capital. His palace is very large, and contains, as we are told, ſeven idols caſt in gold, of two inches thick, each of a man's height, and covered over with diamonds and other precious ſtones. Pegu is about 350 Engliſh miles in length, and almoſt the ſame in breadth. In the year 1754, Pegu was reduced to the ſtate of a dependent province by the king of Ava. Macao is the great mart of trade in Pegu. We know little of the kingdom of Ava. It is ſaid the honours the king aſſumes are next to divine. His ſubjects trade chiefly in muſk and jewels, rubies and ſapphires. In other particulars, the inhabitants reſemble thoſe of Pegu. In thoſe kingdoms, and indeed in the greateſt part of this peninſula, the doctrines of the Grand Lama of Thibet prevail, as well as thoſe of the Brahmins.

The kingdom of Laos or Lahos formerly included that of Jangoma or Jangomay; but that is now ſubject to Ava; we know few particulars of it that can be depended upon. It is ſaid to be immenſely populous, to abound in all the rich commodities, as well as the groſs ſuperſtitions of the Eaſt, and to be divided into a number of petty kingdoms, all of them holding of one ſovereign, who, like his oriental brethren, is abſolutely deſpotic, and lives in inexpreſſible pomp and magnificence; but is of the Lama religion, and often the ſlave of his prieſts and miniſters.

The kingdom of Siam has been often deſcribed by miſſionaries and pretended travellers in the moſt romantic terms; and therefore we can pay little other credit to their accounts, farther than that it is a rich and flouriſhing kingdom, and that it approaches, in its government, policy, and the quickneſs and acuteneſs of its inhabitants, very near to the Chineſe. The kingdom of Siam is ſurrounded by high mountains, which, on the eaſt ſide, ſeparate it from the kingdom of Comboja and Laos: on the weſt, from Pegu: and on the north, from Ava, or more properly, from Jangoma; on the ſouth it is waſhed by the river Siam, and as the peninſula of Malacca, the north-weſt part whereof is under its dominion. The extent of the country, however, is very uncertain, and is but indifferently peopled. The inhabitants of both ſexes are more modeſt than any found in the reſt of this peninſula. Great care is taken of the education of their children. Their marriages are ſimple, and performed by their talapoins, or prieſts, ſprinkling holy water upon the couple, and repeating ſome prayers. We are told that gold is ſo abundant in this country, that their moſt ponderous images are made of it; and that it is ſeen in vaſt quantities on the outſide of the king's palace. Theſe relations are found, by modern travellers, to be the fictions of French and other miſſionaries; for though the country has mines of gold, their ornaments are either exceſſively thin plates of that metal, or a very bright lacker that covers wooden or other materials. The government here is extremely deſpotic: even ſervants muſt appear before their maſters in a kneeling poſture; and the mandarins are proſtrate before the king. Siam, the capital, is repreſented as a large city, but ſcarcely one ſixth part of it is inhabited; and the palace is about a mile and a half in circuit. Bankok, which ſtands about 18 leagues to the ſouth of Siam, and 12 miles from the ſea, is the only place towards the coaſt that is fortified with walls,

batteries, and braſs cannon; and the Dutch have a factory at Ligor, which ſtands on the eaſt ſide of the peninſula of Malacca, but belonging to Siam.

The peninſula of Malacca is a large country, and contains ſeveral kingdoms or provinces. The Dutch, however, are ſaid to be real maſters and ſovereigns of the whole peninſula, being in poſſeſſion of the capital (Malacca). The inhabitants differ but little from brutes in their manner of living; and yet the Malayan language is reckoned the pureſt of any ſpoken in all the Indies. We are told by the lateſt travellers, that its chief produce is tin, pepper, elephants' teeth, canes, and gums. Some miſſionaries pretend that it is the Golden Cherſoneſus or peninſula of the ancients, and that the inhabitants uſed to meaſure their riches by bars of gold. The truth is, that the excellent ſituation of this country admits of a trade with India; ſo that when it was firſt diſcovered by the Portugueſe, who were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, Malacca was the richeſt city in the Eaſt, next to Goa and Ormus, being the key of the China, the Japan, the Moluccas, and the Sunda trade. The country, however, at preſent, is chiefly valuable for its trade with the Chineſe. This degeneracy of the Malayans, who were formerly an induſtrious ingenious people, is eaſily accounted for, by the tyranny of the Dutch, whoſe intereſt it is that they ſhould never recover from their preſent ſtate of ignorance and ſlavery.

The Engliſh carry on a ſmuggling kind of trade in their country ſhips, from the coaſt of Coromandel and the Bay of Bengal to Malacca. This commerce is connived at by the Dutch governor and council among them, who little regard the orders of their ſuperiors, provided they can enrich themſelves.

Cambodia, or Camboja, is a country little known to the Europeans; but according to the beſt information, its greateſt length, from north to ſouth, is about 530 Engliſh miles: and its greateſt breadth, from weſt to eaſt, about 398 miles. This kingdom has a ſpacious river running through it, the banks of which are the only habitable parts of the country, on account of its ſultry air, and the peſtiferous gnats, ſerpents, and other animals bred in the woods. Its ſoil, commodities, trade, animals, and products by ſea and land, are much the ſame with the other kingdoms of this vaſt peninſula. The betel, a creeping plant of a particular flavour, and, as they ſay, an excellent remedy for all thoſe diſeaſes that are common to the inhabitants of the Eaſt Indies, is the higheſt luxury of the Cambodians, from the king to the peaſant; but it is very unpalatable and diſagreeable to the Europeans. The ſame barbarous magnificence, the deſpotiſm of their king, and the ignorance of the people, prevail here as throughout the reſt of the peninſula. Between Cambodia and Cochin-China, lies the little kingdom of Chiampa, the inhabitants of which trade with the Chineſe, and ſeem therefore to be ſomewhat more civilized than their neighbours.

Cochin-China, or the weſtern China, is ſituated under the torrid zone, and extends, according to ſome authors, about 500 miles in length; but it is much leſs extenſive in its breadth from eaſt to weſt. Laos, Cambodia, and Chiampa, as well as ſome other ſmaller kingdoms, are ſaid to be tributary to Cochin-China. The manners and religion of the people ſeem to be originally Chineſe; and they are much given to trade. Their king is ſaid to be immenſely rich, and his kingdom enjoys all the advantages of commerce that are found in the other parts of the Eaſt Indies; but at the ſame time we are told, that this mighty prince, as well as the kings of Tonquin, are ſubject to the Chineſe emperor. It is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that all thoſe rich countries were peopled from China, or at leaſt that they had, ſome

or other, been governed by one head, till the mother-empire became ſo large that it might be convenient to parcel it out, reſerving to itſelf a kind of feudal ſuperiority over them all.

Tonquin has been already mentioned, and little can be added to what has been ſaid, unleſs we adopt the fictions of the popiſh miſſionaries. The government of this kingdom, however, is particular. The Tonquineſe had revolted from the Chineſe, which was attended by a civil war. A compromiſe at laſt took place between the chief of the revolt and the repreſentative of the ancient kings, by which the former was to have all the executive powers of the government, under the name of Chouah: but that the Bua, or real king, ſhould retain the royal titles, and be permitted ſome inconſiderable civil prerogatives within his palace, from which neither he nor any of his family can ſtir without permiſſion of the chouah.

The chouah reſides generally in the capital Cachao, which is ſituated near the centre of the kingdom. The Bua's palace is a vaſt ſtructure, and has a fine arſenal. The Engliſh have a very flouriſhing houſe on the north ſide of the city, conveniently fitted up with ſtore-houſes and office-houſes, a noble dining-room, and handſome apartments for the merchants, factors, and officers of the company.

The poſſeſſion of rubies, and other precious ſtones of an extraordinary ſize, and even of white and party-coloured elephants, convey among thoſe credulous people a pre-eminence of rank and royalty, and has ſometimes occaſioned bloody wars. After all, it muſt be acknowledged, that however dark the accounts we have of thoſe kingdoms may be, yet there is ſufficient evidence to prove, that they are immenſely rich in all the treaſures of nature; but that thoſe advantages are attended with many natural calamities, ſuch as floods, volcanos, earthquakes, tempeſts, and above all, rapacious and poiſonous animals, which render the poſſeſſion of life, even for an hour, precarious and uncertain.

INDIA within the GANGES, or the Empire of the GREAT MOGUL.

SITUATION and EXTENT, including the Peninſula Weſt of the Ganges.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000 Breadth 1500	between	7 and 40 north latitude. 66 and 92 eaſt longitude.	870,910

BOUNDARIES.] THIS empire is bounded by Uſbec Tartary and Thibet, on the North; by Thibet and the Bay of Bengal, on the Eaſt; by the Indian Ocean, on the South; by the ſame and Perſia on the Weſt. The main land being the Mogul empire, or Indoſtan properly ſo called.

Grand

Grand Divisions.	Provinces.		Chief towns.	
The north-east division of India, containing the provinces of Bengal on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut	Bengal proper		Calcutta	
			Fort William	English
			Hoogley	
			Dacca	
			Malda,	English and Dutch
			Chatigan	
			Cassumbazar	
	Naugracut	- -	Naugracut	
	Jesuar	- -	Rajapour	
	Patna	- -	Patna	
	Necbal	- -	Necbal	
	Gore	- -	Gore	
	Rotas	- -	Rotas	
The north-west division, on the frontiers of Persia, and on the river of Indus	Soret	- -	Jaganal	
	Jesselmere	- -	Jesselmere	
	Tata, or Sinda		Tata	
	Bucknor	- -	Bucknor	
	Moultan	- -	Moultan	
	Haican	- -	Haican	
	Cabul	- -	Cabul	
The middle division	Candish	- -	Medipour	
	Berar	- -	Berar	
	Chitor	- -	Chitor	
	Ratipor	- -	Ratipor	
	Navar	- -	Navar	
	Gualeor	- -	Gualeor	
	Agra	- -	Agra	
	Delhi	- -	DELHI, E. long. 77-40. N. lat. 29	
	Lahor, or Pencah		Lahor	
	Hendowns	- -	Hendowns	
	Cassimere	- -	Cassimere	
	Jengapour	-	Jengapour	
	Asmer, or Bando		Asmer	

The British nation possess, in full sovereignty, the whole soubah of Bengal, and the greatest part of Bahar. In Orissa, or Orixa, only the districts of Midnapour. The whole of the British possessions in this part of Indostan, contain about 150,000 square British miles of land; to which, if we add the district of Benares, the whole will be 162,000, that is 30,000 more than are contained in Great Britain and Ireland; and near eleven millions of inhabitants. The total net revenue, including Benares, is about 287 lacks of Sicca rupees, which may be reckoned equal to 3,050,000l. * *Rennel.* With their allies and tributaries, they now occupy the whole navigable course of the Ganges, from its entry on the plains to the sea, which by the winding course is more than 1350 miles.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The winds in this climate generally blow for six months from the south, and six from the north. April, May, and the beginning of June, are excessively hot, but refreshed by sea breezes; and in

* A considerable addition both to the territory and revenue of the East India company was obtained by the cessions in the late treaty of peace with Tippoo Sultan, to the amount of 15,374 square miles, affording a revenue of 13,16,765 Koonteary pagodas. RENNEL

ſome dry ſeaſons, the hurricanes, which tear up the ſands, and let them fall in dry ſhowers, are exceſſively diſagreeable. The Engliſh, and conſequently the Europeans in general, who arrive at Indoſtan, are commonly ſeized with ſome illneſs, ſuch as flux, or fever, in their different appearances; but when properly treated, eſpecially if the patients are abſtemious, they recover, and afterwards prove healthy.

MOUNTAINS.] The moſt remarkable mountains are thoſe of Caucaſus and Naugracut, which divide India from Perſia, Uſbec Tartary, and Thibet; and are inhabited by Mahrattas, Afghans, or Patans, and other people more warlike than the Gentoos. As to the mountains of Balegaut, which run almoſt the whole length of India, from north to ſouth, they are ſo high as to ſtop the weſtern monſoon; the rains beginning ſooner on the Malabar, than they do on the Coromandel coaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Indus, called by the natives Sinda and Sindeh; and the Ganges, both of them known to the ancients, and, as obſerved in p. 666, held in the higheſt eſteem, and even veneration, by the modern inhabitants. Beſides thoſe rivers, many others water this country.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] Theſe are the Indian Ocean; the Bay of Bengal; the Gulf of Cambaya; the Straits of Ramanakoel; Cape Comorin, and Diu.

INHABITANTS.] I have already made a general review of this great empire, and have only to add, to what I have ſaid of their religion and ſects, that the fakirs are a kind of Mahometan mendicants or beggars, who travel about, practiſing the greateſt auſterities; but many of them are impoſtors. Their number is ſaid to be 800,000. Another ſet of mendicants are the joghis, who are idolaters, and much more numerous, but moſt of them are vagabonds and impoſtors, who live by amuſing the credulous Gentoos with fooliſh fictions. The Banians, who are ſo called from their affected innocence of life, ſerve as brokers, and profeſs the Gentoo religion, or ſomewhat like it.

The Perſees, or Parſes, of Indoſtan, are originally the Gaurs, deſcribed in Perſia, but are almoſt induſtrious people, particularly in weaving, and architecture of every kind. They pretend to be poſſeſſed of the works of Zoroaſter, whom they call by various names, and which ſome Europeans think contain many particulars that would throw light upon ancient hiſtory both ſacred and profane. This opinion is countenanced by the few parcels of thoſe books that have been publiſhed; but ſome are of opinion that the whole is a modern impoſture, founded upon ſacred, traditional, and prophane hiſtories. They are known as paying divine adoration to fire, but it is ſaid only as an emblem of the divinity.

The nobility and people of rank delight in hunting with the bow as well as the gun, and often train the leopards to the ſports of the field. They affect ſhady walks and cool fountains, like other people in hot countries. They are fond of tumblers, mountebanks, and jugglers; of barbarous muſic, both in wind and ſtring inſtruments, and play at cards in their private parties. Their houſes make no appearance, and thoſe of the commonality are poor and mean, and generally thatched, which renders them ſubject to fire; but the manufacturers chooſe to work in the open air; and the inſides of houſes belonging to principal perſons are commonly neat, commodious, and pleaſant, and many of them magnificent.

COMMERCE OF INDOSTAN.] I have already mentioned this article, as well as the manufactures of India; but the Mahometan merchants here carry on a trade that has not been deſcribed, I mean that with Mecca, in Arabia, from the weſtern parts of this empire, up the Red Sea. This trade is carried on in a particular ſpecies of veſſels called junks, the largeſt

of

of which, we are told, beſides the cargoes, will carry 1700 Mahometan pilgrims to viſit the tomb of their prophet. At Mecca they meet with Abyſſinian, Egyptian, and other traders, to whom they diſpoſe of their cargoes for gold and ſilver; ſo that a Mahometan junk returning from this voyage is often worth 200,000l.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.

The province of Agra is the largeſt in all Indoſtan, containing 40 large towns and 340 villages. Agra is the greateſt city, and its caſtle the largeſt fortification in all the Indies. The Dutch have a factory there, but the Engliſh have none.

The city of Delhi, which is the capital of that province, is likewiſe the capital of Indoſtan. It is deſcribed as being a fine city, and containing the imperial palace, which is adorned with the uſual magnificence of the Eaſt. Its ſtables formerly contained 12,000 horſes, brought from Arabia, Perſia, and Tartary; and 500 elephants. When the forage is burnt up by the heats of the ſeaſon, as is often the caſe, theſe horſes are ſaid to be fed in the morning with bread, butter, and ſugar, and in the evening with rice-milk properly prepared.

Tatta, the capital of Sindia, is a large city; and it is ſaid that a plague which happened there in 1699 carried off above 80,000 of its manufacturers in ſilk and cotton. It is ſtill famous for the manufacture of palanquins, which are a kind of canopied couches, on which the great men all over India, Europeans as well as natives, repoſe when they appear abroad. They are carried by four men, who will trot along, morning and evening, 40 miles a day; 10 being uſually hired, who carry the palanquin by turns, four at a time. Though a palanquin is dear at firſt coſt, yet the porters may be hired for nine or ten ſhillings a month each, out of which they maintain themſelves. The Indus, at Tatta, is about a mile broad, and famous for its fine carp.

Though the province of Mouſtan is not very fruitful, yet it yields excellent iron and canes; and the inhabitants, by their ſituation, are enabled to deal with the Perſians and Tartars yearly for above 60,000 horſes.

The province of Caſſimere being ſurrounded with mountains, is difficult of acceſs, but when entered, it appears to be the paradiſe of the Indies. It is ſaid to contain 100,000 villages, to be ſtored with cattle and game, without any beaſts of prey. The capital (Caſſimere) ſtands by a large lake; and both ſexes, the women eſpecially, are almoſt as fair as the Europeans, and are ſaid to be witty, dexterous, and ingenious.

The province and city of Lahor formerly made a great figure in the Indian hiſtory, and is ſtill one of the largeſt and fineſt provinces in the Indies, producing the beſt ſugars of any in Indoſtan. Its capital was once about nine miles long, but is now much decayed. We know little of the provinces of Ayud, Varad, Bekar, and Hallabas, that is not in common with the other provinces of Indoſtan, excepting that they are inhabited by a hardy race of men, who ſeem never to have been conquered, and though they ſubmit to the Moguls, live in an eaſy, independent ſtate. In ſome of thoſe provinces many of the Europeans fruits, plants, and flowers, thrive as in their native ſoil.

Bengal, of all the Indian provinces, is perhaps the moſt intereſting to an Engliſh reader. It is eſteemed the ſtorehouſe of the Eaſt Indies. Its fertility exceeds that of Egypt after being overflowed by the Nile: and the produce of its ſoil conſiſts of rice, ſugar-canes, corn, ſeſamum, ſmall mulberry and other trees. Its calicoes, ſilks, ſalt-petre, lakka, opium, wax, and civet, go all over the world: and proviſions here are in vaſt plenty, and incredibly cheap, eſpecially pullets, ducks, and geeſe. The country is interſected

fected by canals cut out of the Ganges for the benefit of commerce, and extends near 100 leagues on both ſides the Ganges, full of cities, towns, caſtles, and villages.

In Bengal, the worſhip of the Gentoos is practiſed in its greateſt purity, and their ſacred river (Ganges) is in a manner lined with their magnificent pagodas or temples. The women, notwithſtanding their religion, are ſaid by ſome to be laſcivious and enticing.

The principal Engliſh factory in Bengal is at Calcutta, and is called Fort William: it is ſituated on the river Hoogley, the moſt weſterly branch of the Ganges. It is about 100 miles from the ſea; and the river is navigable up to the town, for the largeſt ſhips that viſit India. The fort itſelf is ſaid to be irregular, and untenable againſt diſciplined troops; but the ſervants of the company have provided themſelves with an excellent houſe, and moſt convenient apartments for their own accommodation. As the town itſelf has been in fact for ſome time in poſſeſſion of the company, an Engliſh civil government, by a mayor and aldermen, was introduced into it. This was immediately under the authority of the company. But, in 1773, an act of parliament was paſſed to regulate the affairs of the Eaſt India company, as well in India as in Europe. By this act, a governor-general and four counſellors were appointed, and choſen by the parliament, with whom was veſted the whole civil and military government of the preſidency of Fort William; and the ordering, management, and government of all the territorial acquiſitions and revenues in the kingdom of Bengal, Bahar, and Oriſſa, ſo long as the company ſhould remain poſſeſſed of them. The governor-general and council ſo appointed, are inveſted with the power of ſuperintending and controlling the government and management of the preſidencies of Madras, Bombay, and Bencoolen. The governor-general and council to pay obedience to the orders of the court of directors, and to correſpond with them. The governor-general and counſellors are likewiſe empowered to eſtabliſh a court of judicature at Fort-William: to conſiſt of a chief juſtice and three other judges, to be named from time to time by his majeſty; they are to exerciſe all criminal, admiralty, and eccleſiaſtical juriſdiction: to be a court of record, and a court of oyer and terminer for the town of Calcutta, and factory at Fort William, and its limits; and the factories ſubordinate thereto. But the eſtabliſhment of this ſupreme court does not appear to have promoted either the intereſts of the Eaſt India company, or the felicity of the people of the country. No proper attention has been paid to the manners and cuſtoms of the natives: acts of great oppreſſion and injuſtice have been committed; and the ſupreme court has been a ſource of great diſſatisfaction, diſorder, and confuſion. For the ſubſequent regulations of the Eaſt India territories and company, we refer to our account in the Hiſtory of England.

In 1756, an unhappy event took place at Calcutta, which is too remarkable to be omitted. The India nabob, or viceroy, quarrelled with the company, and inveſted Calcutta with a large body of black troops. The governor, and ſome of the principal perſons of the place, threw themſelves, with their chief effects, on board the ſhips in the river; they who remained for ſome hours, bravely defended the place; but their ammunition being expended, they ſurrendered upon terms. The ſoubah, a capricious unfeeling tyrant, inſtead of obſerving the capitulation, forced Mr. Holwel, the governor's chief ſervant, and 145 Britiſh ſubjects, into a little but ſecure priſon, called the Black-hole, a place about eighteen feet ſquare, and ſhut up from almoſt all communication of free air. Their miſeries during the night were inexpreſſible, and before morning no more than twenty-three were found alive, the reſt dying of ſuffocation, which was generally attended with a horrible phrenſy. Among thoſe

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ſaved was Mr. Holwel himſelf, who has written a moſt affecting account of the cataſtrophe. The inſenſible nabob returned to his capital, after plundering the place, imagining he had routed the Engliſh out of his dominions; but the ſeaſonable arrival of admiral Watſon and colonel (afterwards lord) Clive, put them once more, with ſome difficulty, in poſſeſſion of Calcutta; and the war was concluded by the battle of Plaſſey, gained by the colonel, and the death of the tyrant Sarajah Dowla, in whoſe place Mhir Jaffeir, one of his generals, who had previouſly ſigned a ſecret treaty with Clive to deſert his maſter, and amply reward the Engliſh, was advanced of courſe to the ſoubahſhip.

The capital of Bengal, where the nabob keeps his court, is Patna, or Moorſhedabad; and Benares, lying in the ſame province, is the Gentoo univerſity, and celebrated for its ſanctity.

Chandenagore is the principal place poſſeſſed by the French in Bengal; it lies higher up the river than Calcutta. But though ſtrongly fortified, furniſhed with a garriſon of 500 Europeans, and 1200 Indians, and defended by 123 pieces of cannon and three mortars, it was taken by the Engliſh admirals Watſon and Pococke, and colonel Clive; and alſo was taken the laſt war, but reſtored by the peace. Hoogley, which lies fifty miles to the north of Calcutta, upon the Ganges, is a place of prodigious trade for the richeſt of all Indian commodities. The Dutch have here a well fortified factory. The ſearch for diamonds is carried on by about 10,000 people from Saumelpour, which lies thirty leagues to the north of Hoogley, for about fifty miles farther. Dacca is ſaid to be the largeſt city of Bengal, and the tide comes up to its walls. It contains an Engliſh and a Dutch factory. The other chief towns are Caſſumbazar, Chinchura, Barnagua, and Maldo; beſides a number of other places of leſs note, but all of them rich in the Indian manufactures.

We know little concerning the province or ſoubah of Malva, which lies to the weſt of Bengal, but that it is as fertile as the other provinces, and that its chief cities are Ratiſpor, Ougein, and Indoor. The province of Candiſh includes that of Berar and part of Orixa, and its capital is Brampur, or Burhampoor, a flouriſhing city, and carries on a vaſt trade in chintzes, callicoes, and embroidered ſtuffs. Cattac is the capital of Orixa.

The above are the provinces belonging to the Mogul's empire, to the north of what is properly called the Peninſula Within the Ganges. Thoſe that lie to the ſouthward fall into the deſcription of the peninſula itſelf.

History.] The firſt invader of this country, worthy to be noticed, was the famous Alexander, of Macedon. Zinghis Khan alſo directed his force there in the year 1221, and made the emperor forſake his capital; he is ſaid to have given the name of Mogul to India. Long before Tamerlane deſcended in the female line from that conqueror, Mahometan princes had entered, made conqueſts, and eſtabliſhed themſelves in India. Valid, the ſixth of the caliphs, named Ommiades, who aſcended the throne in the 708th year of the Chriſtian æra, and in the 90th of the hegira, made conqueſts in India; ſo that the Koran was introduced very early into this country. Mahmoud, ſon of Sebegtechin, prince of Gazna, the capital of a province ſeparated by mountains from the north-weſt parts of India, and ſituated near Kandahar, carried the Koran with the ſword into Indoſtan, in the year 1000 or 1002 of the Chriſtian æra. He treated the Indians with all the rigour of a conqueror, and all the fury of a zealot, plundering treaſures, demoliſhing temples, and murdering idolaters throughout his route. The wealth found by him in Indoſtan is repreſented to be immenſe. The ſucceſſors of this Mahmoud are called the dynaſty of the Gaznavides,

and maintained themſelves in a great part of the countries which he had conquered in India until the year 1155, or 1157, when Koſron Schah, the 13th and laſt prince of the Gaznavide race, was depoſed by Kuſſain Gauri, who founded the dynaſty of the Gaurides, which furniſhed five princes, who poſſeſſed nearly the ſame dominions as their predeceſſors the Gaznavides. Scheabbedin, the fourth of the Gauride emperors, during the life of his brother and predeceſſor, Gaiatheddin, conquered the kingdoms of Moultan and Delhi, and drew from thence prodigious treaſures. But an Indian, who had been rendered deſperate by the pollutions and inſults to which he ſaw his gods and temples expoſed, made a vow to aſſaſſinate Scheabbedin, and executed it. The race of Gaurides finiſhed in the year 1212, in the perſon of Mahmoud, ſucceſſor and nephew to Scheabbedin, who was alſo cut off by the ſwords of aſſaſſins. Several revolutions followed till the time of Tamerlane, who entered India at the end of the year 1398, deſcending more terrible than all its former inundations, from the centre of the northern part of the Indian Caucaſus. This invincible barbarian met with no reſiſtance ſufficient to juſtify, even by the military maxims of Tartars, the cruelties with which he marked his way. But after an immenſe ſlaughter of human creatures, he at length rendered himſelf lord of an empire which extended from Smyrna to the banks of the Ganges. The hiſtory of the ſucceſſors of Tamerlane, who reigned over Indoſtan with little interruption more than 350 years, has been variouſly repreſented; but all agree in the main, that they were magnificent and deſpotic princes; that they committed their provinces, as has been already obſerved, to rapacious governors, or to their own ſons, by which their empire was often miſerably torn in pieces. At length, the famous Aurenzebe, in the year 1667, though the youngeſt among many ſons of the reigning emperor, after defeating or murdering all his brethern, mounted the throne of Indoſtan, and may be conſidered as the real founder and legiſlator of the empire. He was a great and a politic prince, and the firſt who extended his dominion, though it was little better than nominal, over the Peninſula within the Ganges, which is at preſent ſo well known to the Engliſh. He lived ſo late as the year 1707, and it is ſaid that ſome of his great officers of ſtate were alive in the year 1750. From what has been already ſaid of this empire, Aurengzebe ſeems to have left too much power to the governors of his diſtant provinces, and to have been at no pains in preventing the effects of that dreadful deſpotiſm, which, while in his hands, preſerved the tranquillity of this empire; but when it deſcended to his weak indolent ſucceſſors, occaſioned its overthrow.

In 1713, four of his grandſons diſputed the empire, which, after a bloody ſtruggle, fell to the eldeſt, Mauzoldin, who took the name of Jehander Shah. This prince was a ſlave to his pleaſures, and was governed by his miſtreſs ſo abſolutely, that his great omrahs conſpired againſt him, and raiſed to the throne one of his nephews, who ſtruck off his uncle's head. The new emperor, whoſe name was Furrukhſir, was governed and at laſt enſlaved by two brothers of the name of Seyd, who abuſed his power ſo groſsly, that being afraid to puniſh them publicly, he ordered them both to be privately aſſaſſinated. They diſcovered his intention, and dethroned the emperor, in whoſe place they raiſed a grandſon of Aurengzebe, by his daughter, a youth of ſeventeen years of age, after impriſoning and ſtrangling Furrukhſir. The young emperor proved diſagreeable to the brothers, and being ſoon poiſoned, they raiſed to the throne his elder brother, who took the title of Shah Jehan. The rajahs of Indoſtan, whoſe anceſtors had entered into ſtipulations, or what may be called *pacta conventa*, when they admitted the Mogul family, took the field againſt the

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two brothers; but the latter were victorious, and Shah Jehan was put in tranquil poſſeſſion of the empire, but died in 1719. He was ſucceeded by another prince of the Mogul race, who took the name of Mahommed Shah, and entered into private meaſures with his great rajahs for deſtroying the Seyds, who were declared enemies to Niſam al Muluck, one of Aurengzebe's favourite generals. Nizam, it is ſaid, was privately encouraged by the emperor to declare himſelf againſt the brothers, and to proclaim himſelf ſoubah of Decan, which belonged to one of the Seyds, who was aſſaſſinated by the emperor's order, and who immediately advanced to Delhi to deſtroy the other brother; but he no ſooner underſtood what had happened, than he proclaimed the ſultan Ibrahim, another of the Mogul princes, emperor. A battle enſued in 1720, in which the emperor was victorious, and is ſaid to have uſed his conqueſt with great moderation, for he remitted Ibrahim to the priſon from whence he had been taken; and Seyd, being likewiſe a priſoner, was condemned to perpetual confinement, but the emperor took poſſeſſion of his vaſt riches. Seyd did not long ſurvive his confinement; and upon his death, the emperor abandoned himſelf to the ſame courſe of pleaſures that had been ſo fatal to his predeceſſors. As to Nizam, he became now the great imperial general, and was often employed againſt the Mahrattas, whom he defeated, when they had almoſt made themſelves maſters of Agra and Delhi. He was confirmed in his ſoubahſhip, and was conſidered as the firſt ſubject in the empire. Authors, however, are divided as to his motives for inviting Nadir Shah, otherwiſe Kouli Khan, the Perſian monarch, to invade Indoſtan. It is thought, that he had intelligence of a ſtrong party formed againſt him at court; but the truth perhaps is, that Nizam did not think that Nadir Shah could have ſucceſs, and at firſt wanted to make himſelf uſeful by oppoſing him. The ſucceſs of Nadir Shah is well known, and the immenſe treaſure which he carried from Indoſtan in 1739. Beſides thoſe treaſures, he obliged the Mogul to ſurrender to him all the lands to the weſt of the rivers Attock and Synd, comprehending the provinces of Peyſhor, Kabul, and Gagna, with many other rich and populous principalities, the whole of them almoſt equal in value to the crown of Perſia itſelf.

This invaſion coſt the Gentoos 200,000 lives. As to the plunder made by Nadir Shah, ſome accounts, and thoſe too ſtrongly authenticated, make it amount to the incredible ſum of two hundred and thirty-one millions ſterling, as mentioned by the London Gazette of thoſe times. The moſt moderate ſay that Nadir's own ſhare amounted to conſiderably above ſeventy millions. Be that as it will, the invaſion of Nadir Shah may be conſidered as putting a period to the greatneſs of the Mogul empire in the houſe of Tamerlane. However, when Nadir had raiſed all the money he could in Delhi, he re-inſtated the Mogul, Mahommed Shah, in the ſovereignty, and returned into his own country. A general defection of the provinces ſoon after enſued; none being willing to yield obedience to a prince deprived of the power to enforce it. The provinces to the north-weſt of the Indus had been ceded to Nadir Shah, who being aſſaſſinated in 1747, Achmet Abdallah, his treaſurer, an unprincipled man, but poſſeſſed of great intrepidity, found means, in the general confuſion occaſioned by the tyrant's death, to carry off three hundred camels loaded with wealth, whereby he was enabled to put himſelf at the head of an army, and march againſt Delhi with fifty thouſand horſe. Thus was the wealth, drawn from Delhi, made the means of continuing thoſe miſeries of war which it had at firſt brought upon them. Prince Ahmen Shah, the Mogul's eldeſt ſon, and the vizier, with other leading men, in this extremity, took the field, with eighty thouſand horſe, to oppoſe the invader

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The war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and Mahommed Shah died before its termination. His ſon, Amhed Shah, then mounted the imperial throne at Delhi; but the empire fell every day more into decay. Abdallah erected an independent kingdom, of which the Indus is the general boundary.

The Mahrattas, a warlike nation, poſſeſſing the ſouth-weſtern peninſula of India, had, before the invaſion of Nadir Shah, exacted a chout or tribute from the empire, ariſing out of the revenues of the province of Bengal, which being withheld, in conſequence of the enfeebled ſtate of the empire, the Mahrattas became clamourous. The empire began to totter to its foundation; every petty chief, by counterfeiting grants from Delhi, laying claim to Jaghires * and to diſtricts. The country was torn to pieces by civil wars, and groaned under every ſpecies of domeſtic confuſion. Ahmed Shah reigned only ſeven years, after which much diſorder and confuſion prevailed in Indoſtan, and the people ſuffered great calamities. At preſent, the imperial dignity of Indoſtan is veſted in Shah Zadah, who is univerſally acknowledged to be the true heir of the Tamerlane race; but his power is feeble: the city of Delhi, and a ſmall territory, round it, is all that is left remaining to the houſe and heir of Tamerlane, who depends upon the protection of the Engliſh, and whoſe intereſt it is to ſupport him, as his authority is the beſt legal guarantee.

We ſhall now conclude the hiſtory of Indoſtan with ſome account of the Britiſh tranſactions in that part of the world, ſince 1765, when they were quietly ſettled in the poſſeſſion of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, not indeed as abſolute ſovereigns, but as tributaries to the emperor. This ſtate of tranquility, however, did not long continue, for, in 1767, they found themſelves engaged in a very dangerous war with Hyder Ally, the ſovereign of Myſore. This man had originally been a military adventurer, who learned the rudiments of the art of war in the French camp; and in the year 1753, had diſtinguiſhed himſelf in their ſervice. In 1763, having been advanced to the command of the army of Myſore, he depoſed his ſovereign, and uſurped the ſupreme authority, under the title of regent. In a ſhort time he extended his dominions on all ſides, except the Carnatic, until at laſt his dominions equalled the iſland of Great Britain in extent, with a revenue at not leſs than four millions ſterling annually. The diſcords which took place in various parts of Indoſtan, particularly among the Mahrattas, enabled him to aggrandize himſelf in ſuch a manner, that his power ſoon became formidable to his neighbours: and in 1767, he found himſelf in danger of being attacked on one ſide by the Mahrattas, and on the other by the Britiſh. The former were bought off with a ſum of money, and the latter were in conſequence obliged to retire. Having ſoon, however, aſſembled all their forces, ſeveral obſtinate engagements took place; and the Britiſh now, for the firſt time, found a ſteady oppoſition from an Indian prince. The war continued with various ſucceſs during the years 1767, 1768, and part of 1769, when Hyder, with a ſtrong detachment of his army, paſſing by that of the Britiſh, advanced within a little diſtance of Madras, where he intimidated the government into a peace upon his own terms. The advantages gained by this peace, however, were quickly loſt by an unfortunate war with the Mahrattas, from whom, in the year 1771, he received a moſt dreadful defeat, almoſt his whole army killed or taken. Hyder was now reduced to the neceſſity of allowing his enemies to deſolate the country, till they retired of their own accord; after which he retrieved

* Jaghire means a grant of land from a ſovereign to a ſubject, revokable at pleaſure; but generally, or almoſt always, for a life-rent.

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his affairs with incredible perſeverance and diligence, ſo that in a few years he became more formidable than ever. In 1772, the Mahrattas made ſome attempts to get poſſeſſion of the provinces of Corah, and ſome others, but were oppoſed by the Britiſh; who, next year, defeated and drove them acroſs the river Ganges, when they had invaded the country of the Rohillas. On this occaſion the latter had acted only as the allies of Sujah Dowla, to whom the Rohilla chiefs had promiſed to pay 40 lacks of rupees for the protection offered them; but when the money came to be paid, it was, under various pretences, refuſed; the conſequence of which was, that the Rohilla country was next year (1774) invaded and conquered by the Britiſh, as well as ſeveral other large tracts of territory; by which means the boundary of Oude was advanced, to the weſtward, within 25 miles of Agra; north-weſtward to the upper part of the navigable courſe of the Ganges; and ſouth-weſtward to the Jumna river.

In 1778, a new war commenced with the Mahrattas; on which occaſion a brigade, conſiſting of 7000 Indian troops, commanded by Britiſh officers, traverſed the whole empire of the Mahrattas, from the river Jumna to the weſtern ocean. About this time the war with France broke out, and Hyder Ally, probably expecting aſſiſtance from the French, made a dreadful irruption into the Carnatic, at the head of 100,000 men. For ſome time he carried every thing before him; and having the good fortune to defeat, or rather deſtroy, a detachment of the Britiſh army, under colonel Baillie, it was generally imagined that the power of Britain in that part of the world would have ſoon been annihilated. By the happy exertions of ſir Eyre Coote, however, to whom the management of affairs was now committed, the progreſs of this formidable adverſary was ſtopped, and he ſoon became weary of a war, which was attended with incredible expence to himſelf, without any reaſonable proſpect of ſucceſs. By the year 1782, therefore, Hyder Ally was ſincerely deſirous of peace, but died before it could be brought to a concluſion; and his rival, ſir Eyre Coote, did not ſurvive him above five months: a very remarkable circumſtance, that the commanders in chief of two armies, oppoſed to each other, ſhould both die natural deaths within ſo ſhort a ſpace of time.

To Hyder Ally ſucceeded his ſon, Tippoo Sultan, whoſe military proweſs is well known. Of all the native princes of India, Tippoo was the moſt formidable to the Britiſh government, and the moſt hoſtile to its authority. The peace of Mangalore, in 1784, had, it was ſuppoſed, ſecured his fidelity by very feeble ties; and the ſplendid embaſſy which, not long after that event, he diſpatched to France, afforded much reaſon to apprehend that ſome plan was concerted between the old government of that country and the tyrant of Myſore, for the annoyance of Great Britain in its Indian poſſeſſions; but this plan was happily defeated by the French revolution.

The increaſing power of Tippoo was not leſs formidable to the Dutch, than to the Engliſh; and the vicinity of Cochin, their moſt flouriſhing ſettlement on the continent of India, to the territories of that aſpiring monarch, made them tremble for its ſafety. That ſagacious people, however, have ſeldom been without their reſources. Beſides Cochin, the Dutch were poſſeſſed of two other forts, which were ſituated between Myſore and their favourite ſettlement; and one of them, Cranganore, had been taken by Hyder Ally in 1779, or 1780. When the war broke out in 1780 between Hyder and the Engliſh, he was obliged to evacuate his garriſons on the Malabar coaſt, to employ his force in the Carnatic; and Holland and France being ſoon after united with Hyder againſt the Engliſh, the Dutch embraced the opportunity of clandeſtinely taking poſſeſſion, and re-garriſoning

ſoning the fort; a meaſure which greatly offended Hyder, and of which he loudly complained. By the mediation, however, of France, a compromiſe took place, but upon what terms is uncertain.

From the vicinity of Cranganore and Acottah to his boundary, and their ſituation within the territory of an acknowledged tributary to Myſore (the rajah of Cochin) the poſſeſſion of them was a moſt deſirable object with Tippoo. In the month of June, 1789, he marched a formidable force towards Cranganore, with a profeſſed intention of making himſelf maſter of it, upon a claim chiefly founded upon the tranſactions we have juſt related. Unable therefore to retain the poſſeſſion of the forts themſelves, and fearing for a ſettlement of much ſuperior value, the Dutch readily entered into a negociation with the rajah of Travancore for the purchaſe of them. That politic people eaſily ſaw, that by placing them in his hands, they erected a moſt powerful barrier, no leſs than the whole force of Great Britain (who was bound by treaty to aſſiſt him) againſt the encroachments of their ambitious neighbour upon their ſettlement at Cochin. The imprudence of the rajah, in entering upon ſuch a purchaſe while the title was diſputed, drew down upon him the heavieſt cenſures from the government at Madras; and he was repeatedly cautioned both by ſir Archibald Campbell, and Mr. Holland, his ſucceſſor in the government, not to proceed in the negociation. Such, however, was the ardour and temerity of the rajah in making this acquiſition, that he not only concluded the purchaſe with the Dutch, but even treated with the rajah of Cochin, without the privity of Tippoo, though he was the acknowledged tributary of that prince, for ſome adjacent territory. The bargain was concluded in July, 1789, though it was not till the 4th of Auguſt that the rajah informed the Madras government, through their reſident Mr. Powney, that he was on the point of making the purchaſe.

It was not probable that Tippoo would remain an indifferent ſpectator of theſe tranſactions. He inſiſted on the claim which he retained over theſe forts, in conſequence of their being conquered by his father, and in conſequence of the ſubſequent compromiſe. He aſſerted, that, in conſequence of the feudal laws, no transfer of them could take place without his conſent, as ſovereign of Myſore; and on the 29th of December, he made with a conſiderable force a direct attack upon the lines of Travancore. On receiving a remonſtrance from the Britiſh government of Fort St. George, he deſiſted, and even apologized. From the 29th of December to the 1ſt of March, Tippoo Sultan remained perfectly quiet, ſtill aſſerting his claims to the feudal ſovereignty of the forts; but, it is confidently affirmed, offering to ſubmit the diſpute to any impartial adminiſtration.

On the firſt of March, 1790, the rajah's troops made an offenſive attack upon Tippoo, who had continued quiet within his lines from the 29th of December. An engagement took place; and the Britiſh government conceived themſelves bound to take an active part. No period appeared more favourable to humble Tippoo, if that was the object of the Britiſh adminiſtration. With all the other powers of India we were not only at peace, but treaties of alliance exiſted between Great Britain and the two moſt powerful ſtates of India, the Nizam and the Mahrattas; and both declared themſelves in perfect readineſs to exert their utmoſt force TO CRUSH THE RISING power of Myſore.

Events of ſuch magnitude as the progreſs and cloſe of this war in India, by which the Britiſh power is more than ever eſtabliſhed on the continent of Aſia, naturally excite an eager curioſity in all the ſubjects of this empire: we wiſh to be minutely informed by what ſteps ſo great advantages were ſecured, what obſtacles were ſurmounted, and by what means; how

how far the glory of our country is increaſed by the manner, as well as her intereſt promoted by the nature of the conqueſt?

The detached accounts from time to time tranſmitted, during the progreſs of ſuch tranſactions, cannot fully ſatisfy this rational curioſity: theſe being only parts divided from each other by long interruptions, loſe their natural connection, and the diſtinctneſs of their reference to the whole; and the neceſſary explanations and illuſtrations not being always attainable, this diſjointed hiſtory is ſeldom fully underſtood. But from a narrative drawn up by major Dirom, from journals and authentic documents, we are enabled to lay before our readers the moſt ſatisfactory information upon the preſent ſubject.

It ſhould be remembered, that the campaign here recorded was the third of our war with Tippoo Sultan, The *firſt* commenced in June, 1790, and concluded with that year. It was confined below the Ghauts. The *ſecond campaign* contained the capture of Bangalore, which fixed the ſeat of war in the enemy's country, and concluded with the retreat of lord Cornwallis from Seringapatam, towards the end of May 1791. The *third* commences almoſt from that point, and terminates in March 1792. Obſerving, however, as the author very properly ſtates, that, in the fine climate of Myſore, campaigns are regulated rather by plans of operations, than by ſeaſons.

The narrative commences with unfavourable circumſtances; the retreat of the two armies under general Abercromby and lord Cornwallis; the loſs of cannon in both; an epidemic diſtemper among the cattle; and a dreadful ſcarcity of grain. Theſe evils, however, vaniſh by degrees; the junction of the Mahrattas affords a ſupply of neceſſaries, arrangements are made for obtaining in future the moſt ample and regular proviſion of bullocks and grain, and for replacing the battering guns. On the return of the army to the vicinity of Bangalore, the operations began, which were to ſecure the communication with the Carnatic, and reduce the power of the enemy in thoſe parts. The Britiſh force was immediately and ſucceſsfully employed to reduce Ouſſoor, Rayacotta, and the other hill forts commanding the Policode paſs. The next object was the forts to the north-eaſt of Bangalore, which interrupted the communication with the Nizam's army, and with the Carnatic, by that route. Theſe being ſoon reduced, Nundydroog built on the ſummit of a mountain, about one thouſand ſeven hundred feet in height, a place of greater magnitude and ſtrength, was attacked, and after being beſieged from Sept. 22d, was carried by aſſault, on the 18th of October, in ſpite of obſtacles which might reaſonably have been deemed inſurmountable.

By means of diſpoſitions made for that purpoſe, ſupplies of all kinds now came in from the Carnatic. Penagra was taken at the end of October; and Kiſtdagheri attacked on the 7th of November: this was almoſt the only enterpriſe that was not completely ſucceſsful; the lower fort and pettah were retaken; but the upper fort maintained its defence, and the attack was relinquiſhed. It ſeems that it could only have been carried by a *coup de main*, which unluckily failed. On the 2d of the ſame month, another inſtance of ill ſucceſs happened to us; the relief of Coimbetore having been prevented, that garriſon was obliged to capitulate to Cummer-ud-Deen Cawn, on terms which Tippoo did not afterwards fulfil.

Savendroog, or the Rock of Death, bore witneſs, in the month of December, to the ardour and perſeverance of the Britiſh troops. This fortreſs, ſtanding in the way between Bangalore and Seringapatam, is thus deſcribed: It is "a vaſt mountain of rock, and is reckoned to riſe above half a mile in perpendicular height, from a baſe of eight or ten miles in circumference. Embraced by walls on every ſide, and defended by croſs walls and barriers, wherever it was deemed acceſſible: this huge mountain had the farther advantage

vantage of being divided above by a chaſm which ſeparates the upper part into two hills, which, having each their defences, form two citadels capable of being mantained, independent of the lower works; and, affording a ſecure retreat, ſhould encourage the garriſon to hold out to the laſt extremity," p. 67. It is no leſs famed for its noxious atmoſphere, occaſioned by the ſurrounding hills and woods, than for its wonderful ſize and ſtrength. Hence it derives its formidable name.

The ſultan is ſaid to have flattered himſelf, that before this place "half the Europeans would die of ſickneſs, the other half be killed in the attack;" he was, however, miſtaken. The garriſon, fortunately for us, truſted more to the ſtrength of the place than to their own exertions, and, on the 21ſt of December, only the 11th day of the ſiege, this fortreſs, hitherto deemed impregnable, was taken by aſſault in leſs than an hour, in open day, without the loſs of a man, only one private ſoldier having been wounded.

Outredroog, and other forts fell ſucceſſively after this brilliant ſucceſs. The forces of the allies were not equally fortunate during the ſame interval. The army of the Nizam, after a long ſiege of Gurramcondah, drew off to join our forces, and only left the place blockaded. To make amends for this failure, the Mahratta army, under Purſeram Bhow, aſſiſted by our engineers, took Hooly Onore, Bankapoor, Simoga, and other places. By the latter end of January, 1792, the whole allied force, excepting the Bombay army, was aſſembled in the vicinity of Hooleadroog.

We come now to the operations againſt Seringapatam. On the firſt of February, 1792, the allies began their march, and by two o'clock on the 5th, were encamped acroſs the valley of Milgotah, only ſix miles from the poſition of Tippoo before Seringapatam. It could not well be expected by the ſultan that he ſhould receive ſo early an attack as lord Cornwallis deſtined for him. His camp was ſtrongly ſituated and fortified by a bound hedge, and ſeveral redoubts. Nevertheleſs, after cauſing his poſition to be reconnoitered in the morning of the 6th, the commander in chief iſſued orders for the attack that very evening. The army was to march at night in three diviſions, and without cannon. "The plan of attack," ſays major Dirom, "was indeed bold beyond the expectation of our army; but, like a diſcovery in ſcience, which excites admiration when diſcloſed, it had only to be known to be met with general applauſe." The outlines of this great enterpriſe are generally known; the particulars cannot be detailed in this place, but are related with great clearneſs by the hiſtorian, and ſo illuſtrated by the attendant plans, that the circumſtances cannot be miſtaken.

The reſult of this operation was, that Tippoo was driven from his camp into Seringapatam, all his redoubts taken, and a lodgement eſtabliſhed on the iſland, in a ſtrong poſition, where lieut. Stuart remained poſted. All poſſible preparations were made, from this time, for taking the capital by aſſault: and they were ſuch as probably would have been crowned with full ſucceſs. On the 16th of February, the Bombay army, under general Abercromby, after overcoming various obſtacles, joined the main army, and remained poſted to the north-weſt of the city. On the 19th it was ſtationed on the ſouth ſide of the Cavery, in a ſituation that ſeemed to give the Sultan much uneaſineſs. However, after attacking the advanced poſt of this army on the night of the 21ſt, Tippoo made no farther effort; and on the 24th, when the preparations for the general aſſault were in great forwardneſs, it was announced that preliminaries of peace were ſettled. The conferences for this purpoſe had begun on the 15th; but the operations on both ſides continued till the 24th. After the ceſſation of arms, which then took place, the conduct of Tippoo Sultan was ſo equivocal and ſuſpicious, as to make it neceſſary, on our part, to renew the preparations for the ſiege.

Overawed,

Overawed, at length, by the firmneſs and deciſion of lord Cornwallis, and probably alarmed by the diſcontent of his own people, the reluctant ſultan ſubmitted to all the terms propoſed; and on the 19th of March, the copies of the definitive treaty were delivered in form, by his ſons to lord Cornwallis, and the agents of the allied princes. The Nizam's ſon, prince Secunder Jah, and the Mahratta plenipotentiary Hurry Punt, thought it beneath their dignity to be preſent on this occaſion in perſon, and were repreſented by their vakeels.

The ſubſtance of the treaty was, 1ſt, That Tippoo was to cede one half of his dominions to the allied powers. 2d, That he was to pay three crores, and thirty lacks of rupees. 3d, That all priſoners were to be reſtored. 4th, That two of the ſultan's three eldeſt ſons were to become hoſtages for the due performance of the treaty.

Tippoo is ſaid to have been prevailed upon with infinite difficulty to ſubſcribe to the terms of peace; and now that all was ſettled, the uneaſineſs in the ſeraglio became extreme in parting with the boys, who were to be ſent out as hoſtages. The ſultan was again intreated to requeſt they might be allowed to ſtay another day, in order to make ſuitable preparations for their departure; and lord Cornwallis, who had deſpenſed with their coming at the time the treaty was ſent, had again the goodneſs to grant his requeſt.

When the princes left the fort, which appeared to be manned, as they went out, and every where crowded with people, who, from curioſity or affection, had come to ſee them depart; the ſultan himſelf was on the rampart above the gateway. They were ſaluted by the fort on leaving it, and with twenty-one guns from the park as they approached our camp, where the part of the line they paſſed was turned out to meet them. The vakeels conducted them to the tents, which had been ſent from the fort for their accommodation, where they were met by Sir John Kennaway, the Mahratta and Nizam's vakeels, and from thence accompanied by them to head quarters.

The princes were each mounted on an elephant richly capariſoned, and ſeated in a ſilver howder [a canopied ſeat] and were attended by their father's vakeels, and the perſons already mentioned alſo on elephants. The proceſſion was lead by ſeveral camel harcarras [meſſengers] and ſeven ſtandard bearers, carrying ſmall green flags ſuſpended from rockets *, followed by one hundred pikemen, with ſpears inlaid with ſilver. Their guard of two hundred ſepoys, and a party of horſe, brought up the rear. In this order they approached head quarters, where the battalion of Bengal ſepoys, commanded by captain Welch, appointed for their guard, formed a ſtreet to receive them.

Lord Cornwallis, attended by his ſtaff, and ſome of the principal officers of the army, met the princes at the door of his large tent, as they diſmounted from the elephants; and, after embracing them, led them in, one in each hand, to the tent; the eldeſt, Abdul Kalick, was about ten, the youngeſt, Mooza-ud-Deen, about eight years of age. When they were ſeated on each ſide of lord Cornwallis, Gullam Ally, the head vakeel, addreſſed his lordſhip as follows; "Theſe children were this morning the ſons of the ſultan my maſter; their ſituation is now changed, and they muſt look up to our lordſhip as their father."

Lord Cornwallis, who had received the boys as if they had been his own ſons, anxiouſly aſſured the vakeel and the young princes themſelves, that every attention poſſible would be ſhewn to them, and the greateſt care taken

* *Rocket* is a miſſile weapon, conſiſting of an iron tube of about a foot long, and an inch in diameter, fixed to a bamboo rod of ten or twelve feet long.

of their perſons. Their little faces brightened up; the ſcene became highly intereſting; and not only their attendants, but all the ſpectators were delighted to ſee that any fears they might have harboured were removed, and that they would ſoon be reconciled to their change of ſituation, and to their new friends.

The princes were dreſſed in long white muſlin gowns and red turbans. They had ſeveral rows of large pearls round their necks, from which was ſuſpended an ornament conſiſting of a ruby and an emerald of conſiderable ſize, ſurrounded by large brilliants; and in their turbans, each had a ſprig of rich pearls. Bred up from their infancy with infinite care, and inſtructed in their manners to imitate the reſerve and politeneſs of age, it aſtoniſhed all preſent to ſee the correctneſs, and propriety of their conduct.

Thus ended a war, which, as the author ſums it up in his concluſion, "vindicated the honour of the nation, has given the additional poſſeſſions and ſecurity to the ſettlements in India, which they required; has effected the wiſhed-for balance amongſt the native powers on the peninſula; has, beyond all former example, raiſed the character of the Britiſh arms in India; and has afforded an inſtance of good faith in alliance, and moderation in conqueſt, ſo eminent, as ought to conſtitute the Engliſh arbiters of power; worthy of holding the ſword and ſcales of juſtice in the Eaſt."

The general view of advantages gained by us in this war, may be briefly ſtated thus:—1. Our moſt formidable enemy is ſo reduced by it, as to render our poſſeſſions in India both profitable and ſecure. 2. Madras is ſecured from invaſion by poſſeſſion of the paſſes, and covered by a territory defended by ſtrong forts. 3. The value of Bombay is greatly enhanced by poſſeſſions gained on the Malabar coaſt, protected by Poligautcherry and the frontier of the Coorga Rajah. Theſe advantages, it may be preſumed, will far overbalance the expences of the war. By a ſtatement of major Dirom, it appears that Tippoo loſt in this war 67 forts, 801 cannons, and 49,340 men.

It is utterly impoſſible, ſays major Rennell, in the preſent imperfect ſtate of our knowledge of the geography of the northern part of the peninſula (notwithſtanding the preſent improvements) to deſcribe, with any degree of accuracy, the boundaries of the new ceſſions to the Mahrattas and Nizam; or even the poſitions of all the principal places ſituated within them. A very good *general idea* may, however, be collected from the Map, on which the countries ceded will be particularly marked.

It would however be unjuſt to withold our approbation from lord Cornwallis in every thing that reſpects the conduct of the concluding campaign. Nothing that ſound judgment could deviſe, or activity effect, appears to have been omitted. The humanity and goodneſs of his lordſhip were conſpicuous during the whole of the enterpriſe; and his moderation and ſound policy in the concluding ſcenes cannot be too highly extolled.

As to the government and conſtitution of Indoſtan, we muſt refer to what we have already obſerved. The emperor of Indoſtan, or Great Mogul (ſo called from being deſcended from Tamerlane, the Mongul or Mogul Tartar) on his advancement to the throne, aſſumes ſome grand title; as, "*The Conqueror of the World; the Ornament of the Throne,*" &c. but he is never crowned.

THE PENINSULA WITHIN THE GANGES.

Grand diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns,	Sq. M.
The ſouth-eaſt coaſt of India, ſituate on the bay of Bengal, uſually called the coaſt of Coromandel.	Madura	Madura -	16,400
	Tanjour	Tanjour	83,550
		Tranquebar, Danes	
		Negapatam, Engliſh	
		Biſnagar	
		Porta-nova, Dutch	
		Fort St. David, Engliſh	
		Pondicherry, Conymere } French	
		Coblon	
		Sedraſpatan, Dutch	
		St. Thomas, Portugueſe	
		Fort St. George or Madras, E. long. 80-25. N. lat. 13-5. Engliſh	
		Pellicate, Dutch —	
	Eaſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnatic		
	Golconda	Golconda - -	62,100
		Gani, or Coulor, diamond mines	
		Maſulipatan, Engliſh and Dutch	
		Vizigapatan, Engliſh	
		Bimlipatan, Dutch	
	Oriſſa	Cattack	
		Balaſore, Engliſh	
The ſouth-weſt coaſt of India, uſually called the coaſt of Malabar.	Weſt ſide of Biſnagar, or Carnatic	Tegapatan, Dutch	83,040
		Anjengo, Engliſh	
		Cochin, Dutch	
		Calicut, Tillichery } Engliſh	
		Canannore, Dutch	
		Monguelore, Baſſilore, } Dutch and Portugueſe	
		Raolconda, diamond mines	
		Cawar, Engliſh	
	Deccan, or Viſiapour	Goa, Portugueſe	
		Rajapour, French	
		Dabal, Engliſh	
		Dundee, Shoule, } Portugueſe	
		Bombay, iſle and town, Engliſh, 18-58. N. lat. 72. 49. E. long.	
		Baſſaim, Portugueſe	
		Salſette, Engliſh	

Grand divisions.	Provinces.		Chief Towns.
The south-west coast of India, usually called the coast of Malabar.	Cambaya, or Guzarat		Damon, Portugueſe
			Surat, E. long. 72. 50. N. lat. 21-10.
			Swalley
			Barak, Engliſh and Dutch
			Amedabad
			Cambaya
			Dieu, Portugueſe.

RIVERS.] The Cattack or Mahanada, the Soane and Nerbudda, the Pudder, and the famous Kiſtna.

CLIMATE, SEASONS, AND PRODUCE.] The chain of mountains already mentioned, running from north to ſouth, render it winter on one ſide of this peninſula, while it is ſummer on the other. About the end of June, a ſouth weſt wind begins to blow from the ſea, on the coaſt of Malabar, which, with continual rains, laſt four months, during which time all is ſerene upon the coaſt of Coromandel (the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts being ſo denominated). Towards the end of October, the rainy ſeaſon and the change of the monſoons begin on the Coromandel coaſt, which being deſtitute of good harbours, renders it extremely dangerous for ſhips to remain there during that time; and to this is owing the periodical returns of the Engliſh ſhipping to Bombay, upon the Malabar coaſt. The air is naturally hot in this peninſula, but it is refreſhed by breezes, the wind altering every twelve hours; that is from midnight to noon it blows off the land, when it is tolerably hot, and during the other twelve hours from the ſea, which laſt proves a great refreſhment to the inhabitants of the coaſt. The produce of the ſoil is the ſame with that of the other part of the Eaſt Indies. The like may be ſaid of their quadrupeds, fiſh, fowl, and noxious creatures and inſects.

INHABITANTS.] The inhabitants of this part are more black in complexion than thoſe of the other peninſula of India, though lying nearer to the equator, which makes ſome ſuſpect them to be the deſcendants of an ancient colony from Ethiopia. The greateſt part of them have but a faint notion of any allegiance they owe to the emperor of Indoſtan, whoſe tribute from hence has been, ever ſince the invaſion of Shah Nadir, intercepted by their ſoubahs and nabobs, who now exerciſe an independent power in the government; but beſides thoſe ſoubahs and other imperial viceroys, many eſtates in this peninſula belong to rajahs, or lords, who are deſcendants of their old princes, and look upon themſelves as being independent on the Mogul, and his authority.

PROVINCES, CITIES, AND OTHER BUILDINGS, PUBLIC AND PRIVATE.] From what has been ſaid above, this peninſula is rather to be divided into great governments, or ſoubahſhips, than into provinces. One ſoubah often engroſſes ſeveral provinces, and fixes the ſeat of his government, according to his own conveniency. I ſhall ſpeak of thoſe provinces, as belonging to the Malabar, or Coromandel coaſt, the two great objects of Engliſh commerce in that country; and firſt of the eaſtern, or Coromandel coaſt.

Madura begins at Cape Comorin, the ſouthermoſt point of the peninſula. It is about the bigneſs of the kingdom of Portugal, and is ſaid to have been governed by a ſovereign king, who had under him ſeventy tributary princes, each of them independent in his own dominions, but paying him a tax; now the caſe is much altered, the prince being ſcarcely able to protect himſelf and his people from the depredations of his neighbours,

bours, but by a tribute to buy them off; the capital is Tritchinopoly. The chief value of this kingdom ſeems to conſiſt of a pearl fiſhery upon its coaſt. Tanjour is a little kingdom, lying to the eaſt of Madura. The ſoil is fertile, and its prince rich, till plundered by the nabob of Arcot, and ſome Britiſh ſubjects connected with him. Within it lies the Daniſh Eaſt India ſettlement of Tranquebar, and the fortreſs of Negapatam, which was taken from the Dutch the laſt war, and confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of the peace: the capital city is Tanjour.

The Carnatic, as it is now called, is well known to the Engliſh. It is bounded on the eaſt by the Bay of Bengal; on the north by the river Kiſtna, which divides it from Golconda; on the weſt by Viſiapour; and on the ſouth by the kingdoms of Meſſaur and Tanjour; being in length, from ſouth to north, about 345 miles, and 276 in breadth from eaſt to weſt. The capital of the Carnatic is Biſnagar, and of our ally the nabob, Arcot. The country in general is eſteemed healthful, fertile, and populous. Within this country, upon the Coromandel coaſt, lies Fort St. David's, or Cuddalore, belonging to the Engliſh, with a diſtrict round it. The fort is ſtrong, and of great importance to our trade. Five leagues to the north lies Pondicherry, once the emporium of the French in the Eaſt Indies, but which hath been repeatedly taken by the Engliſh, and as often reſtored by the treaties of peace.

Fort St. George, better known by the name of Madras, is the capital of the Engliſh Eaſt India Company's dominions in that part of the Eaſt Indies, and is diſtant eaſtward from London about 4,800 miles. Great complaints have been made of the ſituation of this fort; but no pains have been ſpared by the Company, in rendering it impregnable to any force that can be brought againſt it by the natives. It protects two towns, called, from the complexion of their ſeveral inhabitants, the White and the Black. The White Town is fortified, and contains an Engliſh corporation of a mayor and aldermen. Nothing has been omitted to amend the natural badneſs of its ſituation, which ſeems originally to be owing to the neighbourhood of the diamond mines, which are but a week's journey diſtant. Theſe mines are under the direction of a Mogul officer, who lets them out by admeaſurement, and encloſing the contents by palliſadoes; all diamonds above a certain weight originally belonged to the emperor. The diſtrict belonging to Madras, extending about 40 miles round, is of little value for its product; 80,000 inhabitants of various nations are ſaid to be dependent upon Madras; but its ſafety conſiſts in the ſuperiority of the Engliſh by ſea. It carries on a conſiderable trade with China, Perſia, and Mocha.

The reader needs not be informed of the immenſe fortunes acquired by the Engliſh upon this coaſt, within theſe thirty years; but ſome of theſe fortunes appear to have been obtained by the moſt iniquitous practices. There ſeems to have been ſome fundamental errors in the conſtitution of the Eaſt India company. The directors conſidered the riches acquired by their governors and other ſervants as being plundered from the company, and accordingly ſent out ſuperintendents to control their governors and overgrown ſervants; and have from time to time changed their governors and members of the council there. As this is a ſubject of the greateſt importance that ever perhaps occurred in the geography of a commercial country, the reader will indulge us in one or two reflections.

The Engliſh Eaſt India Company, through the diſtractions of the Mogul empire, the ſupport of our government, and the undaunted, but fortunate ſucceſſes of their military officers, have acquired ſo amazing a property in this peninſula, and in Indoſtan, that it is ſuperior to the revenues of many crowned heads; and ſome of their own ſervants pretend, that

when all their expences are paid, their clear revenue amounts to near two millions ſterling; out of which they were to pay 400,000l. annually to the government, while ſuffered to enjoy their revenues. How that revenue is collected, or from whence it ariſes, is beſt known to the company; part of it, however, has been granted in property, and part of it is ſecured on mortgages, for diſcharging their expences in ſupporting the intereſts of their friends, the emperor, and the reſpective ſoubahs and nabobs they have aſſiſted.

Be this as it may, this company has exerciſed many rights appropriated to ſovereignty; ſuch as thoſe of holding forts, coining money, and the like. Thoſe powers were thought incompatible with the principles of a commercial limited company, and therefore the Engliſh miniſtry and parliament have repeatedly interfered, in order to regulate the affairs of the company, and a board of controul at home is at length eſtabliſhed. It has alſo been hoped, that, in conſequence of this interference of the government, ſuch meaſures may be taken with Eaſtern princes and potentates, as may render the acquiſitions of the company permanent and national. But it is much to be regretted, that as the government has thought proper to interfere in the affairs of the Eaſt India Company, it has not alſo taken ſome meaſures to puniſh thoſe many and infamous inſtances of oppreſſion, injuſtice, and cruelty, of which the ſervants of the company have been guilty. As to the ſupreme court lately eſtabliſhed at Calcutta, it has not anſwered the purpoſes for which it was appointed; it has been equally complained of by the ſervants of the company, and by the natives; many of the latter have been grievouſly haraſſed by it, who were not amenable to its juriſdiction; nor has that regard been paid to their manners and cuſtoms, which both juſtice and policy required.

The celebrated Hyder Ally, with whom the ſervants of the company often embroiled them, ſhared the Carnatic with the nabob of Arcot. In the laſt war he took many of its chief places, obtained great advantages over the company's troops, and brought his forces to the gates of Madras, but died before the concluſion of the war. He is ſaid to be a native of the province of Meſſar, or Myſore, which lies to the ſouth-weſt of the Carnatic; and the Chriſtians of the apoſtle St. Thomas live at the foot of the mountains Getti, that ſeparate Meſſar from Malabar. Pellicate, lying to the north of Madras, belongs to the Dutch. I have already mentioned the kingdom of Golcondo, which, beſides its diamonds, is famous for the cheapneſs of its proviſions, and for making white wine of grapes that are ripe in January. Golconda is ſubject to a prince called the Nizam, or Soubah of the Deccan, who is rich, and can raiſe 100,000 men. The capital of his dominions is called Bagnagur, or Hyderabad, but the kingdom takes its name from the city of Golconda. Eaſt-ſouth eaſt of Golconda lies Maſulipatan, where the Engliſh and Dutch have factories. The Engliſh have alſo factories at Ganjam and Vizigapatan, on this coaſt; and the Dutch at Narſipore. The province of Orixa, from whence the Engliſh company draw ſome part of their revenues, lies to the north of Golconda, extending in length from eaſt to weſt about 550 miles, and in breadth about 240. It is governed chiefly by Moodajee Booſlah, and his brother, allies to the Mahrattas. In this province ſtands the temple of Jagaryunt, which they ſay is attended by 500 prieſts. The idol is an irregular pyramidal black ſtone of about 4 or 500lb. weight, with two rich diamonds near the top, to repreſent the eyes, and the noſe and mouth painted with vermillion.

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The country of Deccan* comprehends ſeveral large provinces, and ſome kingdoms; particularly thoſe of Baglagna, Balagate, Telenga, and the kingdom of Viſiapour. The truth is, the names, dependencies, and government of thoſe provinces, are extremely unſettled; they having been reduced by Aurengzebe, or his father, and ſubject to almoſt annual revolutions and alterations. Modern geographers are not agreed upon their ſituation and extent, but we are told, that the principal towns are Aurengabad, and Doltabad, or Dowlet-abad; and the latter is the ſtrongeſt place in all Indoſtan. Near it lies the famous pagod of Elora, in a plain about two leagues ſquare. The tombs, chapels, temples, pillars, and many thouſand figures that ſurround it, are ſaid to be cut out of the natural rock, and to ſurpaſs all the other efforts of human art. Telenga lies on the eaſt of Golconda; and its capital, Beder, contains a garriſon of 3000 men. The inhabitants of this province ſpeak a language peculiar to themſelves.

Baglana lies to the weſt of Telenga, and forms the ſmalleſt province of the empire; its capital is Mouler. The Portugueſe territory begins here at the port of Daman, twenty-one leagues ſouth of Surat, and extends almoſt twenty leagues to the north of Goa. Viſiapour is a large province, the weſtern part is called Konkan, which is intermingled with the Portugueſe poſſeſſions. The rajah of Viſiapour is ſaid to have had a yearly revenue of ſix millions ſterling, and to bring to the field 150,000 ſoldiers. The capital is of the ſame name, and the country very fruitful. The principal places on this coaſt are, Daman, Baſſaim Trapar, or Tarapor, Chawl, Dandi-Rajahhpur, Dabul-Rajuper, Ghiria, and Vingurla. The Portugueſe have loſt ſeveral valuable poſſeſſions on this coaſt, and thoſe which remain are on the decline.

Guzerat is a maritime province on the Gulf of Cambaya, and one of the fineſt in India, but inhabited by a fierce rapacious people. It is ſaid to contain 35 cities. Amed-Abad is the capital of the province, where there is an Engliſh factory, and is ſaid, in wealth, to vie with the richeſt towns in Europe. About 43 French leagues diſtant lies Surat, where the Engliſh have a flouriſhing factory.

Among the iſlands lying upon the ſame coaſt is that of Bombay, belonging to the Engliſh Eaſt India company. Its harbour can conveniently hold 1000 ſhips at anchor. The iſland itſelf is about ſeven miles in length, and twenty in circumference; but its ſituation and harbour are its chief recommendations, being deſtitute of almoſt all the conveniencies of life. The town is about a mile long and poorly built; and the climate was fatal to Engliſh conſtitutions, till experience, caution, and temperance, taught them preſervatives againſt its unwholeſomeneſs. The beſt water there is preſerved in tanks, which receive it in the rainy ſeaſons. The fort is a regular quadrangle, and well built of ſtone. Many black merchants reſide here. This iſland was part of the portion paid with the Infanta of Portugal to Charles II. who gave it to the Eaſt India company; and the iſland is ſtill divided into three Roman Catholic pariſhes, inhabited by Portugueſe, and what are called popiſh Meſtizes and Canarins; the former being a mixed breed of the natives and Portugueſe, and the other the Aborigines of the country. The Engliſh have fallen upon methods to render this iſland and town, under all their diſadvantages, a ſafe, if not

* This name DECCAN ſignifies the SOUTH, and in its moſt extenſive ſignification, includes the whole peninſula ſouth of Indoſtan Proper. However, in its ordinary ſignification, it means only the countries ſituated between Indoſtan Proper, the Carnatic, and Oriſſa; that is, the provinces of Candeiſh, Amednagur, Viſiapour, and Oriſſa.
Rennell's Introduction to the Memoir of his Map of Indoſtan, p. cxii.

an agreeable reſidence. The reader ſcarcely needs to be informed, that the governor and council of Bombay have lucrative poſts, as well as the officers under them. The troops on the iſland are commanded by Engliſh officers; and the natives, when formed into regular companies, and diſciplined, are here, and all over the Eaſt Indies, called Sepoys. The inhabitants of the iſland amount to near 60,000 of different nations; each of whom enjoys the practice of his religion unmoleſted.

Near Bombay are ſeveral other iſlands, one of which, called Elephanta, contains the moſt inexplicable antiquity perhaps in the world. A figure of an elephant, of the natural ſize, cut coarſely in ſtone, preſents itſelf on the landing place, near the bottom of a mountain. An eaſy ſlope then leads to a ſtupendous temple, hewn out of the ſolid rock, eighty or ninety feet along, and forty broad. The roof, which is cut flat, is ſupported by regular rows of pillars, about ten feet high, with capitals, reſembling round cuſhions, as if preſſed by the weight of the incumbent mountain. At the farther end are three gigantic figures, which have been multiplied by the blind zeal of the Portugueſe. Beſides the temple, are various images, and groupes on each hand cut in the ſtone; one of the latter bearing a rude reſemblance of the judgment of Solomon; beſides a colonnade, with a door of regular architecture; but the whole bears no manner of reſemblance to any of the Gentoo works.

The iſland and city of Goa, the capital of the Portugueſe ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies, lies about thirty miles ſouth of Vingurla. The iſland is about twenty-ſeven miles in compaſs. It has one of the fineſt and beſt fortified ports in the Indies. This was formerly a moſt ſuperb ſettlement, and was ſurpaſſed either in bulk or beauty by few of the European cities. It is ſaid that the revenues of the Jeſuits upon this iſland, equalled thoſe of the crown of Portugal. Goa, as well as the reſt of the Portugueſe poſſeſſions of this coaſt, are under a viceroy, who ſtill keeps up the remains of the ancient ſplendor of the government. The rich peninſula of Salſett is dependent on Goa. Sunda lies ſouth of the Portugueſe territories, and is governed by a rajah, tributary to the Mogul. The Engliſh factory of Corwar is one of the moſt pleaſant and healthy of any upon the Malabar coaſt. Kanora lies about forty miles to the ſouth of Goa, and reaches to Calicut. Its ſoil is famous for producing rice, that ſupplies many parts of Europe, and ſome of the Indies. The Kanorines are ſaid generally to be governed by a lady, whoſe ſon has the title of Rajah; and her ſubjects are accounted the braveſt and moſt civiliſed of any in that peninſula, and remarkably given to commerce.

Though Malabar gives name to the whole ſouthweſt coaſt of the peninſula, yet it is confined at preſent to the country ſo called, lying on the weſt of Cape Comorin, and called the Dominions of the Samorin. The Malabar language, however, is common in the Carnatic; and the country itſelf is rich and fertile, but peſtered with green adders, whoſe poiſon is incurable. It was formerly a large kingdom of itſelf. The moſt remarkable places in Malabar are Kannamore, containing a Dutch factory and fort; Tellicherry, where the Engliſh have a ſmall ſettlement, keeping a conſtant garriſon of thirty or forty ſoldiers. Calicut, where the French and Portugueſe have ſmall factories, beſides various other diſtinct territories and cities. Cape Comorin, which is the ſouthermoſt part of this peninſula, though not above three leagues in extent, is famous for uniting in the ſame garden the two ſeaſons of the year; the trees being loaded with bloſſoms and fruit on the one ſide, while on the other ſide they are ſtripped of all their leaves. This ſurpriſing phenomenon is owing to the ridge of mountains ſo often mentioned, which traverſe the whole peninſula from

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ſouth to north. On the oppoſite ſides of the Cape, the winds are conſtantly at variance; blowing from the weſt on the weſt ſide, and from the eaſt on the eaſtern ſide.

It may be proper to obſerve, that in the diſtrict of Cochin, within Malabar, are to be found ſome thouſands of Jews, who pretend to be of the tribe of Manaſſeh, and to have records engraven on copper plates in Hebrew characters. They are ſaid to be ſo poor, that many of them embrace the Gentoo religion. The like diſcoveries of the Jews and their records have been made in China, and other places of Aſia, which have occaſioned various ſpeculations among the learned.

Before we cloſe our account of Indoſtan, it may be proper to deſcribe its preſent diviſion according to the different powers among whom it is ſhared, and this is the more neceſſary as it may ſerve to give the reader a clearer idea of theſe extenſive regions, and at the ſame time ſhew him how very conſiderable a portion belongs to the Britiſh and their allies.

The celebrated Perſian uſurper Thamas Kouli Khan, having in the year 1738 defeated the emperor Mahomed Shaw, plundered Delhi, and pillaged the empire of treaſure to the amount of more than 70 millions ſterling, reſtored the unhappy prince his dominions, but annexed to Perſia all the countries weſtward of the Indus.

This dreadful incurſion ſo weakened the authority of the emperor, that the viceroys of the different provinces either threw off their allegiance, or acknowledged a very precarious dependence; and, engaging in wars with each other, called in as allies the Eaſt India companies of France and England, who had been originally permitted as traders, to form eſtabliſhments on the coaſts: theſe, from the great ſuperiority of European diſcipline, from allies, became in a ſhort time principals in an obſtinate conteſt, that at length terminated in the expulſion of the French from Indoſtan; and thus a company of Britiſh merchants have acquired, partly by ceſſions from the country powers, and partly by injuſtice and uſurpation, territories equal in extent, and ſuperior in wealth and population to moſt of the kingdoms in Europe.

The Mahrattas originally poſſeſſed ſeveral provinces of Indoſtan, from whence they were driven by the arms of the Mogul conquerors; they were never wholly ſubjected, but retiring to the northern part of the Gauts, made frequent incurſions from theſe inacceſſible mountains: taking advantage of the anarchy of the empire, they have extended their frontiers, and are at preſent poſſeſſed of a tract of country 1000 Britiſh miles long, by 700 wide.

Hyder Ally *, a ſoldier of fortune, who had learned the art of war from the Europeans, having poſſeſſed himſelf of that part of the ancient Carnatic

* The character of the late Hyder Ally appearing to me (ſays Major Rennell) to be but little underſtood in this part of the world, I have ventured to attempt an out-line of it. His military ſucceſs, founded on the improvement of diſcipline; attention to merit of every kind; conciliation of the different tribes that ſerved under his banners; contempt of ſtate and ceremony, except what naturally aroſe from the dignity of his character; and his conſequent œconomy in perſonal expences (the different habits of which, from the chief diſtinction of what is called character among ordinary princes) together with his minute attention to matters of finance, and the regular payment of his army; all theſe together raiſed Hyder as far above the princes of Indoſtan, as the great qualities of the late Pruſſian monarch raiſed him above the generality of European princes: and hence I have ever conſidered Hyder as the FREDERICK of the Eaſt. Cruelty was the vice of Hyder; but we are to conſider that Hyder's ideas of mercy were regulated by an Aſiatic ſtandard; and it is not improbable that he might rate his own character for moderation and clemency, as far above thoſe of Tamerlane, Nadar Shah, and Abdallah, as he rated his diſcipline above theirs.

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called the kingdom of Myſore, has within a few years acquired, by continual conqueſts, a conſiderable portion of the ſouthern part of the Peninſula. This able and active prince, the moſt formidable enemy that the Engliſh ever experienced in Indoſtan, dying in 1783, left to his ſon Tippoo Saib the peaceful poſſeſſion of his dominions, ſuperior in extent to the kingdom of England.

Theſe extraordinary revolutions, with others of leſs importance, render the following account of the preſent diviſion of property in this unhappy empire, abſolutely neceſſary, in order to underſtand its modern hiſtory.

PRESENT DIVISION OF INDOSTAN.

Such is the inſtability of human greatneſs, that the preſent Mogul, Shaw Allum, the deſcendent of the Great Tamerlane, is merely a nominal prince, of no importance in the politics of Indoſtan; he is permitted to reſide at Delhi, which, with a ſmall adjacent territory, is all that remains to him of that vaſt empire, which his anceſtors governed for more than 350 years.

The principal diviſions of this country, as they ſtood at the peace with Tippoo in 1792, are as follow, viz. The Britiſh poſſeſſions; States in alliance with Britain: Tippoo Saib's territories; Mahratta ſtates and their tributaries; and the territories of the Subah of the Deccan.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS.

The Britiſh poſſeſſions contain about 177,374 ſquare Britiſh miles*. They conſiſt of three diſtinct governments, viz.

Government of Calcutta or Bengal,	Bengal Subah, Bahar Subah, Benares Subah	on the Ganges.
	Northern Circars,	on the coaſt of Oriſſa.
Government of Madras,	The Jaghire, Territory of Cuddalore, ——— of Devicotta, ——— of Negipatam	On the coaſt of Coromandel.
Government of Bombay,		on the Gulf of Cambay.

To theſe we have now to add the diſtricts ceded by Tippoo Sultan in his late treaty, ſigned at Seringapatam on the 18th of March, 1792, viz.

	Koonteary pagodas
Calicut and Palichaudcherry, yielding a revenue of	9,36,765
Dindigul, Pyalny, and Verapachry	90,000
Salem, Kooſh, Namcool, and Sunkagherry	88,000
Ahtoor, Purmutty, Shadmungul, and Vaylcor	68,000
Barra-Mahal, Raycotta, Darampoory, &c.	1,34,000
	13,16,765

At the rate of 3 rupees to each pagoda, and the rupees reckoned at 2s. 1d. each, the annual value of the late Britiſh acquiſitions will be £.411,450, according to Major Rennell in his Memoir of a map of the Peninſula of India, p. 33. For the revenue of the other Britiſh poſſeſſions, ſee this Grammar, p. 677.

* See page 677.

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